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ABSTRACT

This publication contains 11 conference papers on topics in developmental education. "The Conation Cycle: From Goal to Finished Product" (Joanne Cree Burgert) is on motivation and a learning skills class. "Student Empowerment and Awakening Through Effective Placement Exams" (Robert Holderer) introduces the Modified Primary Trait Scoring System. "Summer Start: A Program to Equalize Accessibility and Responsibility for 'At Risk' Students Pursuing Higher Education" (Lou Tripodi, and others) describes a program at Clarion University in Pennsylvania. "Before Action, Thought: Basis Premises That Inspire Summer Programs" (Robert Miedel) describes a traditional introductory English course that added components to teach writing, critical thinking, and study skills. "Finally, A Way In: Case Writing and Educational Accountability" (Joan Mims) explores how teachers can share pedagogical responsibility through case writing. "Empowering Students with Learning Disabilities: A Partnership Between Students, Faculty, Counselors, and Disabled Student Services Providers" (Joan Sasala) describes the roles and aims that should be assigned to faculty and counselors helping the learning disabled. "Undergraduate Reentry Women's Perceptions of the Classroom Environment" (Caroline Wilkie and Sandra Dean) describes a study which found that reentry women faced negative feelings about themselves much more than reentry men did. "Six Steps to Writing a Research Paper 'From Beginning to End'" (Karen O'Donnell and Mary Lou Palumbo) describes a teacher-developed approach. "New Thoughts on Outreach" (Joe Reilly) describes an outreach program aimed at educationally and economically disadvantaged students involving professional and paraprofessional tutoring and counseling. "Functional Curricula in the Workplace" (Elaine Weinberg) describes a program to develop and teach industry-focused, job-functional curricula for workers. "Training Writing Students Formally" (James Boswell) describes the development of a course to train undergraduate writing tutors. Most papers contain extensive references. (JB)

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SELECTED PROCEEDINGS

from the

13TH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

of the

PENNSYLVANIA ASSOCIATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL EDUCATORS (PADE)

(APRIL 21 & 22, 1994)

CAROLYN WILKIE, EDITOR

MARCH 1995

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PROCEEDINGS PRINTED BY
THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE OF ALLEGHENY COUNTY
PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA

INTRODUCTION

Carolyn Wilkie, Editor

One of the primary vehicles for transmitting and discussing new ideas and strategies in developmental education is the professional conference. PADE has sponsored thirteen annual conferences, and many fine papers have been presented through this means. Unfortunately, without a written record of proceedings, the content of those presentations was shared only with conference attendees who were able to attend specific sessions.

Recently, PADE decided that scholarship within our organization would be shared with the membership through publication of conference proceedings, monographs and shorter papers with a very specific focus. The group that accepted this challenge and is pleased to provide you with the first set of "conference proceedings" is PADE's "Research, Monograph & Occasional Paper" Committee.

The papers included in this publication are refereed. Each was reviewed by at least three members of the Research, Monographs & Occasional Paper Review Board. Acceptance was by a process of majority vote.

Members of PADE's Research, Monograph & Occasional Papers Review Board are listed below:

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Bruce Skolnick, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania
Lou Tripodi, Clarion University of Pennsylvania
Carolyn Wilkie, Indiana University of Pennsylvania

In addition to expressing gratitude to the above persons for their work on this publication, there are also two other members of this committee who contributed in important ways to this publication and who also deserve our thanks. They are Melanie Brown (Community College of Philadelphia) and Janice Walters (Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania).

Gratitude is also extended to the Community College of Allegheny County (Pittsburgh, PA) for printing both this publication and our first publication, a monograph entitled "*Survey of Developmental Education in Pennsylvania.*"

We hope that this publication will serve to better inform our members (and others) about the research and the instructional strategies that are helping to make developmental education a continuing viable endeavor in Pennsylvania. We invite you to contact any of the PADE members mentioned above if you have an idea for a publication that you believe would be a valuable source of information for PADE membership, or if you would like to become involved with the Research, Monograph & Occasional Papers Committee.

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THE CONATION CYCLE: FROM GOAL TO FINISHED PRODUCT

Joanne Cree Burgert, University of Pittsburgh at Bradford

As a mother, long before I entered the professional world of education, I had already learned about that elusive quality of motivation. I knew that it didn't make a lot of difference how smart your child was, if he/she didn't buy into the learning process, success in school didn't happen. And I saw the same thing happening in my composition classes. What was I to do to get my students to want to produce the best writing that they could, not the best writing that anyone could, just the best writing that **they** could. It is this quest that ultimately led me to conation.

The 1991 edition of The Random House Dictionary defines conation as "the aspect of mental life having to do with purposive behavior, including desiring, resolving, and striving." The early German and Scottish psychologists believed that the mind had three parts, cognition (knowing), affection, (valuing) and conation (striving). With the advent of the behavioral psychologists in the twentieth century, the term fell into disuse in the United States. But while the term conation may not be familiar to you, other words and phrases will be. We say, "We give it all we've got", "We do our best", "We endeavor", We try as hard as we can." What do those descriptors have in common? It is the idea that energy is expended in order to complete a desired task. What is our task as educators, as parents, as individuals? To channel that energy. This is exactly what I attempted to do with my Learning Skills class during the spring semester of 1994.

To help with understanding the process, two theoretical constructs designed by Dr. Kathryn Atman of the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh will be presented. The first is a taxonomy for the conative domain (1987) and the second is a theoretical model of goal accomplishment called the Conation Cycle (1982).

A Taxonomy of the Conative Domain

Dr. Atman believes there are distinct stages of the striving process. Remember that striving is goal-focused, which means that we don't strive in a vacuum; we strive toward something. Each incidence of striving in reality has a beginning and an end.

According to Atman, individuals move from a perception of the problem or challenge to actually focusing in on a goal. Psychological energies are released in this process and the person is able to examine possible ways to achieve the goal. The person moves on to engagement where he/she puts into the plan what is needed to accomplish the goal. Next the person becomes involved in carrying out the plan. The final stage is transcendence. Here the person immerses himself/herself in the task of achieving the goal. Atman (1987) writes that this final stage has been described as the peak experience by Maslow (1968), flow by Csikszentmihalyi (1975), and the integration of body and mind by Nideffer (1976).

Atman believes that understanding, being made aware of how the conative domain works, will allow the individual to examine his/her patterns of motivational behavior. The hope is that a person can/will learn to consciously guide his/her will, to be in control of his/her own motivation and ultimately actions. "The conscious management of information as an external resource and one's own energy as an internal resource results in feelings of satisfaction, competence, and a growing sense of self" (Atman 1987).

The Conation Cycle

In order to make conation concrete, Atman developed the Conation Cycle (1982). Explaining the model and teaching goal setting strategies should provide the individual with the knowledge and ability to consciously control his/her will and to accomplish the desired goal. This twelve step self-monitoring program of goal accomplishment has four phases: exploration, commitment, administration and denouement.

Exploration and commitment are reflective modes. Here the student is aware, perceptive, flexible and open (Atman 1987). In addition, the individual is asked to accept responsibility for the task or make a commitment to the task, whatever it might be, and to finally choose a way to achieve the task. This a difficult area for freshmen in college, who are not always proficient in identifying the task or in accepting responsibility for completing it. As an example, one of my advisees, a young man in his first year of college, wanted a late withdrawal from an art class which he was sure to fail due to a total lack of effort. He didn't like the class, so he quit attending it and neglected to withdraw from the course when he still could. After his request was denied by the academic dean, he commented to me that he could not understand what the big deal was. He had already paid for the course, so the university would be getting its money anyway, and no good purpose was being served by what he saw as "teaching him a lesson."

Administration and denouement are active modes. During the administration phase there must be a time frame established. "To manage the plan and keep it operational requires self-discipline and control because reward is sometimes delayed" (Vassar 1984). Focus is needed to resist interference, both internal and external, but without this self-management the goal may not be attained. For those familiar with type theory, it will be remembered that single-mindedness may be more difficult for the person with a P in his/her Myers-Briggs type. These folks are quite receptive to additional stimuli and often find closure difficult because there is always something new to know that might affect the end result. In addition, those who are classified random in Gregorc's (1986) mindstyles model perceive time as loosely structured, so for them time lines are sometimes a bother. During denouement the individual must take stock of the situation, what worked and what didn't and why. He/she must also look ahead and see how this one incident fits into the long term plan. Self-assessment and self-management do not come easily to many college freshmen, but with self-management comes competence. Dr. Atman's Conation Cycle is one way to teach self-management and goal-setting techniques to our students. The steps of the Conation Cycle are explained below.

1. Recognize need, problem, challenge, opportunity. In a few words, write down something that you could address by an established date.

2. Set short or long range goal. Remember that goals are reasonable, feasible and can be accomplished in a set amount of time. Actually write, I will . . . .

3. Brainstorm alternatives. Jot down three different ways you could "solve" the problem, meet the need, etc. These are alternative ways to reach the goal with no judgment made about the value of each possibility.

4. Assess risks and probabilities for success for each alternative. Looking at each of the three possibilities, decide what you have going for you and what you have going against you. You might have come up with a great idea, but one that you know you can never accomplish because it takes you too far out of your comfort zone. On a scale of 1 to 10, give each alternative a number. How likely are you to choose alternative one, alternative two or alternative three. What are you willing to risk?

5. Select a strategy. You may pick only one, two or all three.

6. Get your act in gear. This is a visualization activity and may be the most powerful aspect of the entire cycle. You will want to relax, close your eyes if that is comfortable for you, and breathe slowly in and out. You are to visualize how things will be when you have accomplished your goal. Attempt to actually see yourself being successful. Now think about how you felt at that point. This step is one that you should come back to with regularity as it keeps your desired result alive in your imagination both through seeing the end but in also rehearsing the activities which will get you to the successful completion of your task.

7. Organize. Time control is an integral aspect of the accomplishment. On the one hand, time control may mean making a list of what needs to be done today towards the goal. On the other hand, control of time becomes the prodder which helps a person complete his/her project on time (Atman 1987). These behaviors are natural for most Js. and sequentials.

8. Make it happen. Actually make it happen. You may need to revise the plan during the time frame, but act, be in charge, be in control.

9. Push on. Don't procrastinate.

10. Wrap it up, finish.

11. Ooo and Ah! Evaluate what you accomplished or didn't accomplish.

12. Long range direction. How does this completed or uncompleted goal fit in with your long term plan? You may have to change the long term plan or things may mesh together nicely. Having to change your long term plan may actually make a non-completed goal a success.

The Learning Skills Class

LNSK 0101 at the University of Pittsburgh at Bradford carries one credit which may be used as an elective towards graduation. I try on that first day to get my students to share my vision or my goal that what they will be learning will enhance their chances of success in other classes and in life itself. Gregorc (1986) believes that one of the reasons that learning is not taking place in many classrooms today is that the students are not buying into the goal of the class. If the students in my learning skills class do not see the value in learning SQ3R or the Cornell method of note taking, no matter how good my lessons on them may be, the students will not learn it. In some cases the students may choose to be disruptive, something we are seeing more and more often in the public school system.

New students at Pitt-Bradford take the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator as part of their placement tests. We use the information in our freshman studies classes and I use it in learning skills and for academic counseling. I believe that type has a lot to tell us about how we prefer to learn and why some classes, instructors and situations are easier or harder for some of us than for others to deal with. In addition, the students in the learning skills class took the Goal Orientation Index, which showed them their strengths and weaknesses in the acting, planning and reflecting stages of the conation cycle. They also took Anthony Gregorc's Style Delineator (1985), which determines whether a person is concrete sequential, abstract sequential, concrete random or abstract random. Classroom time for the term was spent on learning styles and goal achievement rather than learning skills. The skills were not overlooked, however, as the students read a book on learning skills and outlined 10 of its 17 chapters. They were also required to work on a computer-aided learning program for speed reading. They kept weekly journals, had a quiz most weeks, and had an assignment about every other week.

I'd like to give a quick summary of the MBTI, Gregorc's mindstyle theory and the Goal Orientation Index before we look at the statistics from the learning skills course.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The MBTI has four scales. The introversion/extroversion scale has to do with energy flow. Es' energy flows out to people and things. Is like to keep their energy in so that they can contemplate. Is can certainly extrovert, but they do their best work when given the time to reflect first. College favors the Is with its emphasis on examining concepts and ideas.

The next scale deals with perception or gathering information. Those who prefer the sensing function are fact-oriented, reality-based, interested in the here and now. Those who prefer intuition trust their hunches, make connections, like possibilities and opportunities. They are natural global learners. College, which does much with abstractions, symbols and theories, favors the Ns.

The third scale has to do with how one prefers to make decisions. Those who prefer thinking are logical, analytical, orderly and sometimes come across as cold or impersonal.

Those who prefer feeling make decisions based upon what is important to them, their personal beliefs and values. They are generally seen as concerned about others and their feelings. Fs have a need to like the courses they are taking and the instructors who are teaching their courses. They do not want to be just a face in the classroom; they want their teachers to know them personally. Apart from the students' own preferences, college does not necessarily favor Ts or Fs. The Ts like those courses which require logical analysis and the Fs shine in classes which stress human motivation and understanding.

The final scale shows how people like to deal with their world. Those who prefer judging like to be organized, like closure, like to have a plan. They are focused, but sometimes make decisions too rapidly because they do like closure. Those who prefer perceiving are open, spontaneous, curious and tolerant. Ps sometimes find it difficult to make decisions because there is always new data which could change the entire situation. Ps are interested in a wide variety of topics which usually helps them on aptitude tests, but Js often get higher grades because they can focus and get their work done. My own personal bias is that students with Ps in their Myers-Briggs type are more likely to get into academic difficulty their first year because they haven't learned how to manage their time.

Anthony Gregorc's Mindstyles

Gregorc (1986) believes that all minds are goal oriented and that our goals are ways of focusing our energy. Motivation in the classroom for Gregorc (1986) is getting people to agree on the goals or objectives of the class, then both the student and the instructor will be willing to focus their energy toward accomplishing those goals. Gregorc (1986, 1989) also believes that we each have a mindstyle that we prefer, although we are able to function in all of his four main categories, just as a person who is an ESTJ can also be reflective, intuitive, feeling and spontaneous when the need arises.

Gregorc (1986, 1989) uses the terms concrete and abstract to describe how a person sees reality. The person who prefers to see reality concretely looks for detail and likes hands on activities as a way to learn. The person who prefers to see reality abstractly likes words and theories. His second main category deals with how we prefer to order time. While we are both, we prefer to order time sequentially or randomly. The sequential person is linear and likes to break time into units. The random person uses network logic (webbing, mnemonic devices) and handles a lot going on around them at once.

He believes that as educators we must as a group settle on our goals and then allow the students to use their own styles to reach those goals. That means flexibility or at least acknowledging that there are various roads to the final destination. He encourages us to use a variety of techniques in the classroom in order to meet the needs of the students (Gregorc 1986). But he also believes that students need to be stretched so that they are able to operate reasonably well in many situations, so styles should be matched and mixed (Gregorc 1989). Gregorc (1986) also suggests that instructors poll students on a weekly basis to see if their needs are being met. A possible technique might be the one-minute inquiry paper where the last minute of the class is used to have the students write on the thing that stands out most for them from the lesson that day and what they may still have a question about.

My students learned what it means to be CS, CR, AS, AR and were given information on particular study strategies for their type. One young woman wrote in her journal that she had learned more psychology in learning skills than she had in PSY 0101. Self-management requires self-understanding, I reminded her.

Goal Orientation Index

The Goal Orientation Index was developed by Atman in 1986 as a way to show people their strengths and weakness in goal accomplishment. The scores from the GOI provide a profile of goal oriented behavior based on the twelve categories of the conation cycle. My class's profile was quite similar to that of Atman's original study, but their preferences were not quite as strong. That easily could be explained as a function of age. Successful goal accomplishment is a combination of using all twelve steps and being able to move from planning, to acting, to reflecting, to planning , to acting, etc. without getting bogged down in the process (Atman 1987).

Results of the Project

At the beginning of the semester the class agreed on three group goals: to bring the class's term QPA average from a 1.76 to a 2.5, to not have anyone earn below a C in learning skills, and to have no one go on probation (anything below a 2.0) for this semester's work. By midterm, the class had earned a group average QPA of 2.1. Getting the midterm grades served more than one purpose. It was definitely an encouragement to the class. Individually it showed the students just where they stood. They were not able to fool themselves that they were doing better than they were. Grades at this point also provided me with the opportunity to suggest possible interventions and changes in study techniques. The final QPA for the term did not reach 2.5, but it held at the 2.1 mark. The class also did not have everyone earn at least a C in learning skills. Three students failed the class, one earned a D, four received Bs and nine earned As. The three who failed came into the class with first term QPAs of 0.25, 1.03, and 0.79, three of the four lowest QPAs in the classroom. One student simply gave up. She wrote, "As I am writing this journal I am realizing that my life here at Pitt-Bradford is about to end. I am not going to make it and I know that I will be dismissed." Another student wanted to get his cum to a 2.0 so that he could play soccer and pledge a fraternity, but he really didn't want to be in school for the academics. As a result he found it difficult to motivate himself to do the academic work unless he really liked the class. He also did not appear to self-regulate very well. He missed his mid term in composition class because he had to go home and let the dog out. The final student of the three tried to work full-time and go to school. She just couldn't juggle both and she felt that she needed the job. And the students did not meet their final goal of having no one placed on probation for their work that term.

Now that you know what didn't happen, let me tell you what did. Fifteen students were not new to Pitt-Bradford and therefore came to the class with grade point averages while two were new students to Pitt-Bradford. Nine or sixty percent raised their QPAs, four students or twenty-five percent had a lower QPA, and two basically stayed the same. Of the twenty-five percent who earned a lower QPA, none put themselves into academic jeopardy.

Nine of the fifteen students were on probation coming into the class and six of the nine made the probation list again. Several of them were doing better at midterm than they ended up. A multitude of reasons can be speculated about this. Philp, in a 1936 monograph on frustration and striving, wrote that if the frustration was strong enough, even if the desire for the goal was still there, the actual striving behaviors would end. Philp noted that past failure can provide an obstacle to effective effort. He also believed that the realization that one's efforts are in vain may come in degrees until it is clear that failure is a sure thing. It may have become clear to some students that their grades at midterm, even though improved, were not going to be high enough to keep them from being dismissed and so effort diminished.

Another possibility could be a function of how low the original QPA is. If the first term QPA is a 1.0 or below, the student knows he/she is on thin ice. If the first round of grades doesn't show marked improvement over the previous term, the student may essentially say, "What's the use?" The dismissal rates of Pitt-Bradford students who earn a 1.0 or below their first semester is approximately 85 percent. Is there a point where interventions are essentially wasted efforts? Or should these students be "handled" in a different manner, possibly requiring them to repeat failed classes immediately or requiring them to meet with a counselor individually each week throughout the term?

Another variable which will affect overall progress is life situations, which were remarkable among my nontraditional students. One juggled two part time jobs, a family that included two foster children, and studying for an insurance exam. Another supported his family through rental properties that needed a great deal of care during our hard winter. And another had a death in the family, the care of her bed-ridden grandmother, a full time job in a nursing home, and finally skin mites. Self-management and goal setting were on survival levels for some of these folks.

As a way to come up with some concrete information, the Goal Orientation Index scores, separately for the twelve questions and in the three categories of acting, planning and reflecting, the MBTI scores, the three QPAs and the scores on the Gregorc indicator were correlated. I found a -0.530 correlation between a person's score on the concrete random scale of Gregorc's model and his/her score on the Goal Orientation Index reflecting category. CRs are experimenters, they are not afraid to take risks, and they learn through experience. This correlation may mean that they don't choose to reflect because they are always willing to try something new. Possibly they don't need to know why something went wrong or how things fit together because they're willing to keep experimenting until it works for them.

Another negative correlation showed up between the abstract random and planning scores, -0.503. The abstract randoms like options with a minimum of structure. They often have trouble with deadlines and following directions. On the other hand, the concrete sequentials' scores and the planning scores showed a 0.392 correlation. The concrete sequentials are practical and orderly. They are the list makers. This preference for planning or spontaneity showed up in the J/P correlations as well. The Js showed a 0.401 correlation and the Ps showed their desire to be open-ended and spontaneous with a -0.387.

The introverts weren't into acting; there was a -0.434 between the I scale of the MBTI and the acting category on the GOI. This has interesting concerns for goal setting. Is can set all sorts of goals in their heads, but actually accomplishing the goal occurs in the outward or extroverting realm. Not their favorite place to operate.

The CS and AR correlations with beginning QPA were interesting. If this data continues to hold true, just being an abstract random should alert student and teacher that a potential problem exists. Four of my students were abstract random; three of those four had QPAs of 1.15 or below. The fourth was a first time Pitt-Bradford student who finished his senior year with a 1.9 and had to take summer classes to graduate. He did fine during the spring semester, but only by sheer determination. The negative correlations showed up with the midterm and final QPAs, but lessened with each. This may be the result of learning the goal setting techniques and self-regulating their behavior.

Those with Ts in their Myers-Briggs type showed moderate to strong positive correlations in all three categories of acting, planning, reflecting. Ts see the value in goal setting and their natural analytical skills relate well to all three aspects. There was an almost opposite negative correlation for the feeling type students. Because this group is so other-centered, it may be that some of the students found it difficult to ignore outside pressures. This group may find it harder to put themselves first and focus on the goal at hand.

My class was a success this term for those who bought into the goal of self-management. However, it is wise to remember Jung's idea of individuation which has been described as the life-long process of bringing things from the unconscious to the conscious. This is the self-monitoring idea or coming in touch with one's inner landscape (Atman 1992). Since conation operates in the inner landscape, learning how to consciously set and accomplish goals puts the individual in touch with his/her own internal processes. This, in turn, helps the maturation process and the spiral continues on and on. This is a life-long process, with great rewards along the way: self-esteem, confidence, competence. And our students will do it themselves, for themselves. A learning skills student sums it up, "There is one thing that I need to say about this semester. I thought that this learning skills class was going to be a blow off and I really was not going to get anything from it, but I was totally wrong. This class has taught me that making and completing your goals is very important. I never really had any goals for me to accomplish before taking this class. But now that I do it is a great feeling to actually have something to achieve. I just want to thank you for opening my eyes to the potential that I do have for achieving anything I put my mind to!"

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STUDENT EMPOWERMENT AND AWAKENING THROUGH EFFECTIVE PLACEMENT EXAMS

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The use of tests for identifying and placing developmental writers in appropriate composition courses has engendered controversy since the middle 1960s. Most faculty agree that placement tests provide departments with valuable data for tracking students; however, faculty have often found that these same tests often misplace students. Thus, numbers of students deemed proficient by these tests often cannot complete the tasks required by the regular composition course while at the same time others deemed nonproficient bypass advisement, enroll in regular composition classes, and pass these classes with grades of **C** or better. This problem points to the need for constructing a new type of test that will provide English departments with more reliable data for matching students with appropriate courses, and this paper will introduce the Modified Primary Trait Scoring System as a response to this problem.

Existing large-scale placement tests have fallen basically into two types. The first is the standardized indirect multiple-choice test that publishers often identify as language skills or language usage tests. This type of measure has emerged as the standard format for national tests such as the TSWE, the ASSET, the SAT, and the ACT. While these tests may have a degree of validity in measuring general writing skills, the publishers of these tests readily claim that their exams are not designed to match students to particular course curricula (Morante, 1987; Sax, 1974). The second type of large-scale assessment test is the direct essay exam. Up to now, the three most commonly used methods for evaluating direct writing tests are holistic scoring designed by the Educational Testing Service, analytic scoring designed by Paul Diederich, and primary trait scoring designed by Richard Lloyd-Jones. Holistic scoring is by far the most popular method of direct writing assessment. While these methods have provided English departments with a more reliable evaluation of writing ability than indirect multiple-choice tests (White, 1985, 1989), these methods have frequently produced unsatisfactory results when English departments have tried to use them as the sole means for identifying and placing students in developmental courses. Existing scoring guides cannot be constructed specifically enough to allow for effective placement decisions, and exam readers cannot match students with appropriate courses (Huot, 1990).

Because none of the existing scoring systems appears to effectively indicate those in need for developmental composition, I have created a new scoring system that identifies those patterns of discourse frequently generated by nonfluent basic writers as they attempt to compose their ideas on paper. I have named this system Modified Primary Trait Scoring because I wish to establish basic writing fluency as the domain to be measured. The new system shares some of the assumptions of traditional direct writing assessment in that the guide allows exam readers to assess discourse by measuring the way in which all of its various components fit together to create the whole, but the system also departs from traditional forms in that the guide has a refined focus so that exam readers can reliably evaluate and place students according to those features of discourse that signify fluency. While this guide is unique, its assumptions are close to those of Primary Trait Scoring because I am assuming that basic writing fluency can be treated as a type of primary trait. The Modified Primary Trait Scoring Guide below was used at a community college in Kansas and corresponds to the following topic:

> Assume that someone your age has just moved into your city or town. Identify a good place to meet people of your age group, describe it, and tell why that place is good for him or her to meet friends.

THE MODIFIED PRIMARY TRAIT SCORING GUIDE:

Proficient Scores

6	Give this score to the essay that provides a clear, organized response to both parts of the question. It not only identifies and describes a good place to meet people of the student's age group, but it tells why that place is good for meeting people of that age group. The writer makes clear connections between his/her assertions and the reasons for these assertions by providing good explanations, illustrations, and connections to each of his or her assertions. The writer shows a good command of language and written conventions. **If the essay shows a significant number of features similar to those listed in category 3, assign this paper a 3.**
5	Give this score to the essay that responds to both parts of the question. (It identifies and describes a place to meet people of the student's age group and tells why that place is a good one.)

However, the essay fails to adequately develop both parts of the question with sufficient explanations, illustrations, and connections. In spite of this lack of development, the essay is still logically organized. The essay may contain errors in structure and spelling (other than the major problems described in Category 3.) **If the essay contains a significant number of features similar to those listed in Category 3, assign the paper a 3.**

4 Give this score to the essay that seriously slights both parts of the question; however, in spite of its weaknesses, the student who wrote this response still has a chance for success in English Composition I. The essay may contain numerous errors, but none are the serious types described in Category 3. **If the essay contains a significant number of features similar to those in Category 3, assign the paper a 2.**

Nonproficient Scores

3 Give this score to the essay that would meet the criteria of a 5 or 6 essay except that it contains one or more of the following features:

- Presence of true fragments in the response
- Significant sentence boundary errors (caused by misfired punctuation)
- Impacted or derailed sentences
- Significant errors in punctuation
- Strings of simple sentences (with or without "and") or other symptoms of **safe writing**
- Paragraphs that contain
  - strings of topic sentences,
  - sentences that just seem to be piled on top of each other,
  - or sentences which do not logically follow each other
- Paragraphs that just seem to fall apart.
- Penmanship: Look for signs of struggle such as
  - sloppy print, scrawly or loopy writing, misshaped letters,
  - erratic capitalization
  - any other signs that show weaknesses in motor skills.
  - **Do not confuse signs of struggle with sloppy handwriting.**

2 Give this score to the essay that appears to meet the criteria for a 4 paper but it contains one or more of the problems described in Category 3.

1 Give this score to the essay that is so short (less than a half page of text on standard paper) that any reasonably accurate judgment of the writer's competence is impossible. The brevity of the response indicates that the student is completely non-fluent or suffers from writing anxiety. What is on the page is so poorly written that it almost lacks meaning.

The top-half descriptors (numbers 4-6 on the scale) direct readers to evaluate papers for idea development. The second sentence in each top-half descriptor (with the exception of number 4) is topic specific and can be modified to correspond to a change in topic. Otherwise, the scoring guide is topic independent.

The bottom-half score descriptors (1-3 on the scale) list those specific features that identify nonfluent writing Because these features are holistic in nature, the possible causes for them will work in tandem. The first group of features identifies problems in sentence structure. These include true fragments (fragments that cannot be logically attached to surrounding sentences), sentence boundary errors (fragments that logically belong to a parent sentence), impacted sentences (ones that contain conflicting ideas), derailed sentences (ones that change direction without warning), and significant errors in punctuation. These features identify problems in composing due to faulty motor skills and short-term memory. Beaugrande (1984), Shaughnessy (1977), Mellon (1981), and Daiute (1981) found that breakdowns in hand-eye motor skills combined with problems in short-term memory will impede students as they compose. As a result, they will misuse punctuation marks, fail in their attempts to embed ideas within sentences, and will leave trails of fragments or convoluted sentences.

A second group of features identifies problems on the paragraph level. These features include strings of topic sentences without supporting ideas, usually within the same paragraph (Shaughnessy, 1977) and sentences that seem to be piled on each other without connections (Brostoff, 1981), resulting in noncohesive paragraphs (Sloan, 1988). These features point to students' problems in understanding and using cohesive devices and reveal their limited repertoire of linguistic structures. Within this feature falls safe writing, the attempt on the part of basic writers to compose discourse without embedding ideas on the phrase or clause level (Shaughnessy, 1977) so that their sentences may be error free (Beaugrande, 1980). This style of writing also points to basic writers' difficulties in moving between abstract and concrete ideas. Shaughnessy found that basic writers cannot establish opinions and support them with examples and illustrations, or if they use details, these writers ramble on without creating generalizations to synthesize their thoughts. Also behind safe writing is apprehension and writer's block (Rose, 1990). Basic writers want to avoid the criticism they know they will receive if they break out of safe writing and create errors in sentence structure and punctuation (Daly and Miller, 1975a, 1975b).

Penmanship, the last feature, points to faulty motor skills and student inexperience at writing. Basic writers will often misshape letters (Mellon, 1981), will often print as opposed to writing cursively, or will use capital letters erratically in their discourse (Shaughnessy).

The scoring guide not only reflects current research about basic writing, but works well in training exam scorers to identify nonproficient developmental writers. We piloted the scoring guide twice at the College twice using the Spearman Correlation Coefficient to test the following hypothesis: There is a positive association between the results generated by the Modified Primary Trait Scoring Guide and final grades in English 1204, English Composition

I; and the Chi Square Test of Independence to test the following hypothesis: Final grades in English 1204, English Composition I, are dependent on the scores generated by the Modified Primary Trait Scoring Guide. With each test, a .05 level of significance was used. Because of space limitations, I will discuss only the test piloted during the Fall 1990 semester.

In testing the data, we compared scores generated from the Modified Primary Trait Scoring Guide with final course grades and scores from the Language Usage section of the ASSET test battery required of all entering students. ASSET test scores ranged from 30 to 54 and formed a roughly symmetric curve with peaks at the 42 and 49 scores. The mean score was 44.21, and the median score was 44. The standard deviation was 4.68. Data from the scores generated from the Modified Primary Trait Guide showed 81% of the population passing the test with scores of 4 through 6, and 19% failing the test with scores of 1 through 3. Final grades in English Composition represented a roughly uniform distribution with a peak at **C**. 68% of the students received final grades of **C** through **A**. 32% of the students received final grades of **D** or **F**. The following two tables show the results of the ASSET Language Usage Test and the Modified Primary Trait Scoring Guide when compared with final grades in English 1204.

Asset Test Scores and Grades in English 1204

English 1204 Grades

		D-F	A-B-C
ASSET SCORES	50-56	8	22
	Honors Comp.	27%	73%
	40-49	45	91
	Fresh. Comp	33%	67%
	30-39	11	19
	Basic Comp	37%	63%

N= 196
$X^2 = 0.72$
P = .70

All students self selected English 1204, English Composition I. All students receiving scores from 50-56 were enrolled in English 1204 as Honors Composition has been discontinued.

Modified Primary Trait Scores and Grades in English 1204

English 1204 Grades

		D-F	A-B-C
WRITING	8-12 Eng. Comp.	38 24%	120 76%
TEST	2-6 IWS	26 68%	12 32%

N= 196
$X^2 = 27.42$
P = .00000

The Spearman Correlation Coefficient showed a positive association of +.27 and a P of <.001 existed between the ASSET Language Test and final grades in English Composition. On the other hand, a positive association of +.45 with a P of <.001 existed between the scores generated from the Modified Primary Trait Guide and final grades in English Composition. While a correlation coefficient of .45 is not a strong one, it was significantly better than the .27 that existed between the multiple-choice test and final grades.

The Chi Square Test of Independence rejected a hypothesis that final grades in English Composition are dependent of scores from the ASSET with a P of .70, which is significantly greater than the .05 allowable. However, the test supported the dependence of scores generated by the Modified Primary Trait scores and final grades in English Composition with a P of .00000. All statistics were generated by SPSS.

Although simple percentages of students passing and failing the course point to successful predictive validity of the Modified Primary Trait Scoring Guide, the coefficient of +.45 was not strong. However, the testing literature seems to indicate that higher correlations are unlikely, given that many confounding variables affect final course grades. Major multiple-choice tests (Ward et al., 1986) and direct writing tests (McKendry, 1992) have traditionally sustained correlation coefficients between .30 to .40. Therefore, the Spearman Correlation Coefficient compares the writing test scored with the Modified Primary Trait Guide favorably with other tests.

The writing sample test scored by the Modified Primary Trait Guide is now a standard component of the placement formula used at the college. Faculty are pleased with the Guide because in theory and practice it reflects the principles held by the English Department. The test has also reinforced the idea that students are placed on the basis of their performance in writing, not on the basis of the rules of grammar. More importantly, students are not misplaced as frequently as they were with other methods.

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SUMMER START: A PROGRAM TO EQUALIZE ACCESSIBILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY FOR "AT RISK" STUDENTS PURSUING HIGHER EDUCATION

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College programs that are offered during the summer months for "At Risk" students are not new to American higher education. Some programs are government mandated or initiated by that specific institution. As stated by Vincent Tinto (1987), "...accepting individuals for admission, institutions accept a major responsibility to ensure, ...that all students without exception have sufficient opportunities and resources to complete their course of study" (p. 181). The Summer Start Program at Clarion was initiated due to the institution's commitment and obligation to students who desire to attend Clarion, but do not meet the basic requirements for a fall matriculation.

Institutions designate their summer programs by various names, but their basic principles and objectives are similar. The primary objective is to assist students with the transition from secondary to college-level work. These programs provide students with the opportunity to develop academic and study skills, become accustomed to resources, develop relationships with peers and faculty, realize self-responsibility to a higher education, and begin to develop a sense of community (Kluepfel, 1994; Tinto, 1987). Courses offered range from English, math, study skills to various general education courses. Students enrolled in the Summer Start Program at Clarion University take a course in College Reading Study Skills along with a Fundamentals of Speech course.

Evolution of Current Summer Start Model

Previous to the current model, students took College Reading and Study Skills and selected a general education elective. Research has shown that when study skills are taught in an isolated setting it is more difficult for students to transfer the learned study skills to their content courses. Thomas and Mormon (1983) assert that students often lack refined study skills because the transfer of these skills to actual learning tasks was never taught. Also it was believed by Summer Start staff that the loose structure did not provide "at Risk" students the full opportunity to develop the academic discipline necessary for college level work. Successful summer programs are highly structured, and a more structured environment can give students a stronger sense of belonging to the institution (Kluepfel, 1994).

To strengthen the structure of the program a general education course was sought that: (1) provides students with maximum exposure to basic learning skills; (2) provides a solid foundation for academic development; (3) the course objectives can be accomplished in a five week session; (4) the course objectives complement the content of the College Reading/Study Skills course; and (5) teach skills that can transfer to future courses. The course chosen was Fundamentals of Speech. Several of the course objectives complemented the objectives of the Reading Study Skills course. It was the theory that this structure would provide students with a high level of exposure to basic learning skills and immediate practical use of such skills. Therefore, this structure avoids the problems associated with developmental courses being taught in an isolated setting.

Current Program Model

The Summer Start program is designed for students who do not completely meet the admittance requirements of Clarion University. General acceptance at Clarion requires students to be in the upper two fifths of their high school class with a SAT score of 900. In order to matriculate full-time they must attend one of two five week summer sessions and achieve a 2.00 GPA taking both three credit courses. Michael Hovland, senior consultant of Noel and Levitz, noted that a conditional acceptance can act as a motivator for students in summer programs (Kluepfel, 1994). To ensure adequate instruction and support the enrollment numbers are controlled. Forty students per session are admitted, with each course having two sections of twenty. Students who are successful in achieving the required grade point average matriculate the following fall semester.

During all semesters, students are advised either individually or in small groups. The Director serves as the students' advisor. Students are met with individually to review course selections, choice of major, and to discuss individual goals and objectives. These activities continue during the academic year with the selection of courses for the spring and succeeding fall terms. During the academic year, student meetings center on class performance and academic assistance with courses with which they are experiencing difficulty. There is continuous follow-up and support during the freshmen year. The degree of support is based upon the level of performance during the summer program and the fall semester. Students are required to spend a designated number of hours in the Academic Support Center, have continuous dialog with the Graduate Assistant, and/or work with tutors. A structured follow-up and support network is critical for participating students to achieve academic success (Kluepfel, 1994).

Personal Development seminars are conducted during the summer terms. The purpose of the seminars is to introduce students to specific policies and procedures of the University and the Summer Start Program, assist students in developing a sense of community with fellow students and the University, and provide information on academic year Summer Start activities.

Philosophy and Objectives

It is the philosophy of the Summer Start staff that students must experience the same standards and requirements as they would with a typical course during the regular academic year. By maintaining the course standards students will have a more accurate perspective of the expectations required in a college level course. This preserves the academic integrity of the courses and also strengthens the academic credibility of the program with faculty and administrators (Kluepfel, 1994). It is also the belief that program activities must be structured so that students assume responsibility for their education. Several authors have noted that students need to be actively involved with their own learning (Bennett, 1984; Astin, 1985 in Tinto, 1987). Activities within the two Summer Start courses have been designed to vigorously involve students. The whole concept can be recapitulated by the following statement by Tinto (1987); " To absolve, in effect, individuals of at least partial responsibility for their own education is to make a serious error " (p. 135).

The primary objective of the Summer Start Program is to provide students with the opportunity for maximum learning skill development through an interactive, cooperative, and amicable educational environment which will ease the transition from high school to college. Specific objectives include: (1) To provide students with the opportunity to develop basic learning skills which will enhance their post-secondary learning experience; (2) To have students develop and master basic speech communication skills; (3) To provide an academic and social environment that will allow students to experience positive interpersonal relationships with other students, faculty, and staff; (4) To give students the necessary academic and personal support to enhance the development of academic and social independence; (5) To have students experience coursework that will provide them with an accurate and effective transition to collegiate academics; and (6) To expose students to academic support services that are available during the academic year.

College Reading Study Skills Component

The College Reading and Study Skills course is designed to strengthen basic skills necessary for success in college. Skills taught help students develop strategies for time management, test taking, communication, goal setting, motivation, how to study, question-asking, library usage, note taking, critical thinking, researching and reading comprehension at the college level. Emphasis is placed on applying these skills to the Fundamentals of Speech course in which they are currently enrolled. Many of the students entering the Summer Start Program are unprepared to accomplish the reading and study tasks required of them for college level work. Throughout the five weeks basic skills are integrated into the content instruction. By learning basic skills along with content, students are able to apply techniques to relevant learning situations immediately.

There are two components to the course, classroom instruction and supplemental lab instruction. The objectives of the course include; the development of a broad range of basic skills, the utilization of a variety of library services, to realize how they are responsible for their experiences in college, and to develop "critical thinking" and "problem solving" skills. These objectives are achieved by lectures, small group discussions, individual and small group exercises, bi-weekly lab sessions, group sharing and assignments outside of class. In addition to the classroom activities students are required to spend two hours each week in the Academic Support Center. In the Center they are assigned individualized, prescriptive materials for the development of specific basic skill areas. These include computerized instruction, videos, worksheets and study groups.

Specific Examples of Classroom Activities With the Paired Courses

Since most college students are not efficient and effective independent learners (Weinstein & Rogers, 1984), the goal should be to teach students a repertoire of strategies and tactics that will prepare them for the tasks and texts they will encounter in college. Students need to learn more than how to develop and when to employ the strategies for college success. They also need to learn how to transfer specific strategies to each course. Strategy transfer occurs more naturally when students have a chance to practice the newly learned strategies on their own text and study situations. The strategy then becomes "real" (Stahl, Simpson, & Hayes, 1992). The instructor of the Reading and Study Skills course does not teach the content of the speech course nor supplant the role of the instructor of that course. The Reading and Study Skills instructor teaches processes and strategies necessary to succeed in the course. Since all the students in the Summer Start Program are going through similar academic experiences, study strategy training can be focused on specific tasks and can improve the possibility of transfer.

Time management is taught with the workload, activities, and assignments of the two courses. A well planned out daily, weekly, and monthly calendar is developed and utilized. Library and research skills are taught, with the end result being a short research paper and an informative speech, which are two requirements of the courses. Notetaking and test taking skills learned in the study skill course are further utilized and developed in the Speech course. The use of the Fundamentals of Speech text is essential for the transfer of reading comprehension. These instructional examples enable students to fully understand the benefits and usage of basic skills in the content areas.

Benefits of Pairing the Two Courses

One of the goals of the Summer Start Program is to create a unified and intense learning experience for five weeks within a supportive environment. The program aims to strengthen the students' study skills, strengthen their sense of personal responsibility, and to improve students' skills in communication. Throughout the five week period students are repeatedly reinforced to use the skills which they were taught. Each of the instructors works as a cooperative unit and maintain close contact throughout the five week period. The courses are planned so that instructors in each of the academic components are familiar with one another's teaching methods. Weekly meetings include discussing classroom approaches, troubleshooting, monitoring student progress, and implementing necessary changes. This helps the instructors to have consistent classroom policies. The instructors are committed to helping the students become responsible for their own behavior and learning. Successful programs identify early the students who are experiencing academic difficulties and provide sound individualized intervention strategies.

Fundamentals of Speech Component

The overall objective of the Fundamentals of Speech course is to make students more proficient communicators in a variety of settings. This objective requires that students be provided with sufficient information and ample opportunities to develop a knowledge and understanding of how one communicates effectively, regardless of the situation. The course needs to provide students with an understanding of the theoretical concepts and constructs of the nature, function and scope of human communication. More specifically, the course attempts to equip students with the ability to analyze and evaluate their communication in interpersonal, small group, and public settings. The students must accept a goal of improving their communication as well as understand the social and psychological impact of their interactions.

The speech course is designed to blend information with experiences in order to enhance the accomplishment of the objectives. The content of the course is centered around a textbook which is required of all students. The text devotes chapters of material and information to various topics in the discipline of speech communication. Students are required to read the text and be able to discuss its content in subsequent classes. As a progressive measurement of student comprehension, quizzes are used throughout the summer session. Three quizzes have been used to divide the content into equitably manageable amounts of material. Quiz questions are written from an applicatory perspective which requires that students be able to "use" their knowledge and not simply "recall" data. Questions often ask students to apply a theory or concept to a situation embodied within the question rather than simply report about that information.

In addition to assigned readings and class discussions, the course provides both non-graded and graded exercises for student participation. Prior to any graded exercise, students are afforded opportunities to participate in similar, non-graded situations to act as a 'trial-run.' For instance, students participate in a small group discussion, have the exercise debriefed, and have recommendations for better performances before they experience the "graded" group assignment. Similar experiences are afforded prior to the public speaking assignments of informative and

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persuasive speeches. Each exercise should assist students to construct a functional understanding of effective speech communication. Each lesson becomes an integral part of the students' abilities to become a more competent communicator--not only for the summer session, but more importantly for future endeavors.

Program Data Narrative

The current model has been in place for four years (summers of '90-93). Student persistence is tracked from the time of full matriculation (fall term of first year) and every other semester thereafter. The average return rate for the third semester is 83% compared to the institutional average of 77%. Average return for the fifth term is 72% compared to the institutional average of 69%. The seventh semester has the Summer Start group averaging with a 64% return and the institutional group averaging 62%. Research has indicated that participation in a summer program will decrease the chances of "at Risk" students from dropping out (Lang and Ford, 1988). A pre/post test in study skills knowledge is given with students showing an average of 38% growth.

Two follow-up interviews are completed with all program participants. During the first interview the students complete an informal questionnaire. Questions ask students to reflect upon their summer experience and relate what they learned to their current academic experiences. The second interview is conducted at the beginning of the spring semester, and is primarily focused with students who are placed on probation. A majority of students note that the summer program helped them adjust, made them familiar with the environment and resources (library), and that they felt more confident in pursuing their academic studies. Those who were placed on probation at the conclusion of the fall term commonly stated that they did not "study enough". These comments are analogous to student comments from similar type summer programs (Simmons, 1994).

Student growth in speech communication competency has been statistically measured. Upon entering the program, students complete a pre-test of randomly selected questions covering the entire course content. Eight questions from the pre-test were also used on each of the three quizzes. The duplicative questions were evenly distributed throughout the course content so that all areas of information were addressed equally. Frequencies of incorrect responses were generated for the pre-test and subsequent quizzes. Ideally, students would be able to increasingly respond correctly to the quiz questions as the semester progressed.

Results support the claim that the summer start program has succeeded in promoting a growth in student knowledge-of-speech communication. Pre-test results from Summer I--1992, Summer I-- 1993, and Summer II--1993 sessions indicate that students correctly answered the control questions at a rate of 52.36%. Students were able to correctly answer more questions on the quizzes in all sections of the speech course. An average for all three summer sessions reveals that students answered the same questions at an overall success rate of 70.33%.

Conclusions

Successful summer programs for "At Risk" students have proven their worth. Review of literature supports the concept and philosophy of Clarion's Summer Start Program. The program pays for itself (Kluepfel, 1994) immediately, as well as in the long-term where students continue to pay tuition and receive a valuable higher education. The current model of Clarion's Summer Start Program has proven its success with student retention. Additionally, the Reading and Study Skills instructor is the Assistant Director of the Academic Support Center. This arrangement provides a direct link for Fall Semester follow-up. It is also the staffs' belief that because the students are in class with the same instructors 15 hours each week and the students attend all their classes together, a strong emotional support network develops (Tinto, 1987). Students feel a connection with the support services that are available to them throughout their undergraduate career.

It must be understood that the structure and philosophy of a successful summer program, such as Clarion's Summer Start, or any retention program in general may not be completely effective in all academic environments (Tinto, 1987). However, this does not necessarily preclude that the basic concepts and objectives of a successful summer program cannot be adapted to other academic environments.

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BEFORE ACTION, THOUGHT: BASIC PREMISES THAT INSPIRE SUMMER PROGRAMS

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Most of us are inheritors. Very few of us have the opportunity to create new programs or teach courses of our own design. No, we are inheritors of programs, courses, even our teaching styles. As teachers, for instance, we may model our own teaching after that of a favorite teacher years since retired. But what we are in danger of doing when we inherit is accepting the old ways of operating without examining why we do what we do. That retired professor who used to lecture so beautifully to a class of awed freshmen would probably be viewed today as a bore. If we adopt the style of our revered professor without examining the assumptions behind a traditional lecture style, we may find that our students today view us too as boring, irrelevant anachronisms. The retired professor believed he or she could stand in front of a classroom and profess truth to rows of dry sponges that would swell with knowledge once the water of truth was poured over them. Today, however, in light of a more fragmented and uncertain world, we might find that students and teacher alike need to explore and probe for various glimpses of the truth and that no one, including the teacher, clearly sees illusive and chameleon truth.

And so it is with summer programs. We often times inherit structures that were designed in the late sixties or early seventies, and we blithely continue to use the same structure summer after summer without stopping to examine why we are doing what we are doing--even though the basic philosophy or set of beliefs that originally inspired the structure may have, probably have, changed over the last two decades. For example, when remedial programs were first developed, it was assumed that students were merely missing certain bits of information (say, how to make subjects and verbs agree); by subjecting the students to large doses of grammar, the cure, while sometimes slow to arrive, was inevitable. Yet over the last two decades the basic thinking about who we teach and how we teach has changed. In fact, there are now several models that can be used instead of what has been called the deficit model of the late sixties (Stahl, Simpson, & Hayes, 1992). But if we never examine our basic premises and beliefs about our students, how they learn, what they should be learning, and what their needs are, then we may be wasting our time and money by conducting summer programs that are founded on inherited (and dead) views of our students and the learning process. To inspire our programs, we need to re-examine the basic premises or beliefs behind our actions.

What I would like to do now is briefly explore several areas such as the cognitive, academic, and psychological, and arrive at a set of beliefs that can act as a foundation for restructuring a summer program. This is necessarily subjective because each planner of a summer program will have a unique philosophy based on his or her own experiences and education, but what is important is that each person, or preferably each staff, examine their own premises prior to administrating a summer program, especially those that have been handed down over the last few decades. After examining the various areas, I will go on to explain the actions we have taken at La Salle University based on our beliefs about students and the learning process.

When one begins to examine the basic premises that inspire summer programs, a relatively simple way of forcing oneself to focus on the area that one wants to explore is to state, "We believe students learn best when. . ." and then list the various beliefs centering around the area under consideration. In the area of cognition, then, we can state that students learn best cognitively when they have time to think about the material they have encountered--a certain amount of fermentation is necessary before the wine is ready to sip. We also believe that knowledge is incremental, with students learning best when they go from the simple to the complex (Bloom, Ingelhart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl, 1977). We believe students learn best when they learn in modules, with one topic being explored in detail before moving on to the next. We believe students learn best when they manipulate materials, which means they are encouraged to look at the material from several different perspectives. And we believe students learn best when assignments are meaningful and graded, with the work earning credit. We also believe that students do *not* learn best when they learn discrete skills in isolation and do not learn best when they are given exercises from workbooks.

Given the above thoughts on cognition, then how do we structure a summer program that allows us to convert our beliefs into actions? At La Salle in our Act 101 program, we decided to teach the traditional introductory English course (English 100), but to create three components of the course with three teachers (Writing, Critical Thinking, and Study Skills). Since we believed that students needed time to think about their readings before being asked to write assignments, then we had to build in some time for ideas to ferment before they were asked to write, so we devised synchronized syllabi for the Critical Thinking and Writing classes. During Week One, for instance, the Critical Thinking Instructor would discuss the topic of gender differences, and have the students read several short essays that examined the issue from various perspectives and angles. By Week Two the Critical Thinking class would move on to another module, in this case readings on affirmative action, but the Writing instructor in her class reintroduces the topic of gender differences, adding her own thoughts and perspectives as she sets requirements for a writing assignment on these differences. In this instance the assignment might be for the students, using examples from their own lives, to argue that there are or are not significant gender differences in the way men and women think. Then the next week, on to a more complicated writing assignment (relying on the readings for supporting arguments) on the pros and cons of affirmative action.

In the meantime, the Study Skills instructor is teaching more traditional study skills (notetaking, marking up texts, surveying texts), but in accordance with the articulated beliefs about how students best learn, we stress interactive, meaningful learning (Chaffee, 1992). Thus, we emphasize the Cornell method of taking notes (with special emphasis on the benefits of the recall column), and then we invite four faculty members from the general college to teach classes that will allow the students to practice their note-taking, read handouts, and eventually take tests that are averaged into their final grade for Study Skills (Luvaas-Briggs, 1984). (Ideally the guest instructors would lecture on topics related to those already discussed in the Critical Thinking classes, but in reality it is too awkward to insist that guest instructors who are volunteering to work with the students prepare special topics just for our students.)

In addition to our beliefs about cognition, we also examined our basic premises in several other areas and then structured our summer program to reflect our beliefs. Here are just a few.

Socially. We believe that an integral part of any summer program is what occurs outside the classroom. In some ways, the social aspect of summer programs is most important, for if a student does not mix well with others, feels alienated from those around him or her, and generally feels unhappy with the college experience, our academic muscle-building will not keep that student in school. Consequently, from the first day of our summer program, various group activities help the students interact with each other. On the opening day of the program, students join in a two-hour group counseling activity as well as a picnic. Later that week we take a field trip. There are also weekly Friday morning activity hours (which include basketball, volleyball, softball, board games, and card games) and a concluding "International Luncheon," which celebrates the heritage of each student. The staff joins the students each day for lunch, and on Wednesday afternoons the Director and other staff members take small groups of students (three or four each) on "mini-trips" to off-beat places in the Delaware Valley.

Psychologically. We believe that our students begin our summer program at various stages of psychological growth, based on a number of factors, including age, experience, parenting, peers, and income. We also believe that, for some at least, the experience will not be positive: more than a few will still be struggling to discover who they are, and these might have difficulty adjusting to the highly structured program we offer at La Salle. At any one time we believe a significant number of students will be suffering the effects of stress (sleeplessness, inability to concentrate, irritability, and more). Yet we believe that most students, given time, will be able to adjust, if they have the support of the faculty, staff, and fellow students. All need time to articulate their concerns, anxieties, and doubts. And we believe that without strong self concepts, the students will likely fall prey to their doubts and anxieties.

Since we believe the above, we saw the need for various types of counseling services (individual and group), and a supporting and encouraging environment. The group counseling begins with the very first day of the summer program when the students interact with each other as they try to discover "secrets" about each other--who of the group was the class president, who the valedictorian, who wrote for the high school paper, who won a scholarship for mock trial. (The counselor had begun to collect this information in May and June, in initial meetings with individual students who had indicated they would be attending La Salle.) The counselor meets individually with students throughout the summer, especially on Wednesdays; in addition, two groups of students meet with the counselor twice a week throughout the summer. Close, daily communication between faculty and counselor is the norm, so that any students who demonstrate by their behavior that they are having difficulty adjusting will quickly be given time with the counselor.

Academically. We believe that we cannot remediate in six and a half weeks, academic deficiencies that have developed over twelve years of formal schooling. We do believe, though, that by focusing on certain key areas, we can close the gap between what our students know and what the other students know, so that with hard work and open minds our students will be able to compete with others who have benefitted from more exclusive educations. We believe that our students will benefit from being exposed to tested study skills methods that require the students to be active learners--so that when the students are inundated with chapter after chapter of reading material in the academic year, they will have at their finger tips a number of strategies that will allow them to successfully attack those chapters. And finally, we believe that while grammar is certainly important for the students to master, it is more important students should be capable of writing clearly stated topic sentences and developing the ideas that support those topic sentences.

What actions, then, did we take in the area of academics? First of all, we reviewed the mathematics curriculum to see what topics we needed to concentrate on if our students were to take the next higher level of mathematics in the Fall semester. If, for instance, the first finite mathematics course in the Fall spent the first few weeks of the term graphing, then we would want to devote some time to teaching the elements of graphing functions in Algebra II in the summer. In study skills we taught the Cornell method of taking lecture notes, explaining the concept behind the recall column and then giving them practice, followed by comments on their notes, and more practice. We taught them some techniques for surveying their college texts, and then we provided handouts from various texts--with tests on the materials in those texts. And in composition class, while the students reviewed various chapters from a college handbook on grammar and usage, the majority of the work in this class centered on writing clear paragraphs and, eventually, complete essays.

Of course there are many other basic premises and beliefs that one would need to articulate as one prepares to develop an action plan for summer programs. Some areas to consider are administrative roles, (how do we envision our role as administrators?), learning styles (what do we believe about differing styles among our students and what should we do about them?), expectations of faculty and staff (what do we believe we can expect of our students?), diversity (what sort of environment do the students need to experience?), trust (how can we best demonstrate to our students the importance of trust?), and tone (what tone do we want to establish with the students over the summer?).

I would like to reiterate: it is not necessary to agree with all the premises stated above. In fact, it would be unlikely to find two people who would agree on the majority of the statements. What is important, though, is that administrators and staff of each institution pause to examine what they believe. The act of examining the premises behind the actions is a healthy activity that will invite needed changes in summer programs and, if nothing else, will clarify goals, build consensus among staff members, and help infuse energy, creativity, and a revitalized spirit into inherited summer programs.

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FINALLY, A WAY IN: CASE WRITING AND EDUCATIONAL ACCOUNTABILITY

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G.K. Chesterton once described the sin of pride as "seeing oneself out of proportion to the universe." As teachers, we are frequently guilty of this error. Atlas-like, we shoulder all pedagogical responsibility, not only for the quality of our own instruction but also for the quality--and quantity--of student learning. It's time we explored alternatives which allow us to share that responsibility.

To accomplish this, we must examine our craft in new and significant ways. As a profession, do we really want to burrow into the core of the hows and whys of successful classroom transference? If so, we must credit certain assumptions. First, the more we understand about teaching and learning, the better we will teach. Furthermore, we care deeply about the quality of our teaching. "The 1989 Carnegie Report on *The Conditions of the Professoriate* found that more than 70% of today's faculty say their primary interest is in teaching" (*The National Teaching and Learning Forum* initial letter 2). Finally, teachers want to share teaching experiences as one way to improve the quality of their effort. Parker J. Palmer, education and author of *To Know As We Are Known: A Spirituality of Education*, affirms this: "Everywhere I go I find a hunger among faculty to reflect on teaching and learning…" (*Forum* initial letter 1). Why then do we participate in so little really meaningful dialogue about teaching?

Naturally, we want something concrete to initiate the dialogue, to illuminate the concerns, to focus the effective strategies. We need a way in, a way to intrigue and engage those colleagues who shrink from vague discussions about the ethics, philosophy, or political correctness of classroom experiences. We need substance and form.

Cases about teaching may well be the opening for which we and our concerned colleagues have been searching. Medical practitioners and lawyers have long used specific cases to formulate a basis for discussions on the practice of their professions. As teachers, we can avail ourselves of the same strategy.

What exactly is a case? The definition is amoeba-like, always in flux, branching out here, retracting there. But cases about teaching share some "essential features," in the view of Pat Hutchings, director of the Teaching Initiative of the American Association of Higher Education and their project "to develop and use cases as a prompt for reflective teaching practice" (PASTS Annual Conference 1994 program).

Hutchings describes cases as "story-like, narrative. They're in depth, close up, concrete. They have the feel of experience. And they're full of the particulars of teaching and learning that are often washed out in more general approaches" (Hutchings 2).

Who writes cases about teaching? Teachers. Who are the characters in these cases? Teachers, students, administrators, and support staff. Where do these writers find material for their cases? All over the university: in classrooms, in offices, in the corridors, in the faculty dining room, on the Quadrangle.

In every teacher, there is at least one unresolved episode screaming to be shared. How does one turn that incident into a case that can teach something about teaching? By keeping in mind the same strategies stressed repeatedly in basic composition and answering some general questions. Why does this story matter? What's the message that needs to be communicated? Who will be the audience--new faculty, experienced faculty, faculty from only one department, or faculty from across the curriculum? How much detail is enough? Too much? Is the problem itself the nature of the case or is the case being written to help discover what the problem really is? Finally, what kind of dialogue about teaching will this story generate?

Write a case and share it with your colleagues; share a case with students and let them expand your awareness with their perceptions about the teaching/learning process. In the past, it's been a lot more comfortable to discuss Thoreau with colleagues than to dissect with colleagues a class we've just taught to see whether or not our teaching of Thoreau "worked." It's time to probe deeper, to learn more about how we do what we do in order to do it better.

Representative Case Study: Student Responsibility

Certainly, a small class of developmental writing students ought to be a good thing, but as Professor Sharon Klein trudged back to her office after yet another discouraging class session, she wondered if perhaps twenty motivated students might be easier to teach than the eight lackluster ones she had. Every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, Sharon sailed into her 11 am class full of hope and enthusiasm; every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday at noon, she walked out depleted and frustrated.

As Sharon reached her office, she dumped her books and bag on her desk and slumped into her chair. Unwrapping a sandwich, she focused her thoughts on John Stewart, just one of the students in the troublesome class. This was John's second attempt at Effective Writing I, but he had been absent repeatedly and had failed to hand in either of the two required essay assignments already collected. At this point, almost midway through the spring semester, Sharon considered the alternatives. She could suggest that John withdraw from the course and repeat it yet again the following fall, or she could make one more attempt at getting him actively involved.

In previous, short conversations, John had alluded to some vague health problems but had shown no inclination to take responsibility for the requirements of the class and had, in fact, shown little appreciation for Sharon's concern. He was, however, a student in the university's Academic Development Program, so Sharon decided to involve some of the program staff in her decision. Telephoning the program's assistant director, Dr. Blackwell, Sharon spoke with her at length about John's situation. Dr. Blackwell promised to speak with John herself and also to alert John's academic advisor to his precarious situation. She further promised to telephone Sharon again once these contacts had been made.

When Sharon spoke with Dr. Blackwell again the next day, Sharon was surprised to hear John's version of his situation. According to John, he had made numerous attempts to contact Professor Klein; either she was not in her office for her agreed upon office hours, or she simply "yelled at him" if he tried to speak with her before or after class about making up the work he had missed . Much to Sharon's relief, Dr. Blackwell was quick to state that she knew enough about Sharon's teaching to be highly suspicious of both of John's assertions. Dr. Blackwell had extracted a commitment from John that he would see Sharon the following day during her 10 am office hour.

On Wednesday, Sharon was pleased to discover that her office mate would be in attendance during the hour when John was supposed to appear; having a witness to this interview might later prove useful for Sharon, since she and John seemed to have vastly different ideas about their interactions thus far. Waiting and wondering whether John would show up, Sharon ate an apple and considered how to best make John assume responsibility for her class.

A few minutes after ten, John knocked on the open office door. He entered warily, as though expecting a confrontation.

"Please, sit down, John," Sharon instructed. "We definitely need to talk. I am very concerned about your lack of participation in class."

"Like I said, I've been sick. They might be gonna test me for mono."

"If you are being seen by a doctor, then you can bring in a doctor's excuse for some of your class absences."

"I don't have any excuse written down. The infirmary won't give you one."

Unfortunately, Sharon knew that this was at least partially true; while the infirmary would provide a standard note to anyone seen there, they took no responsibility for any personal, dated, or specific excuses from classes. She moved on to her second major concern.

"How far along are you on the narrative essay?" Sharon asked, referring to the first essay John had failed to submit.

"I've started to think about it," John mumbled.

"Any progress on the second essay which was due last week?"

"Uh, no, I can't find that sheet you gave us on that assignment."

"Then let's get out another copy and go over it together."

Sharon and John spent the next ten minutes reviewing the assignment and discussing possible approaches John might take. John exhibited a rare spark of animation when he expressed an idea he had for the assignment. Sharon reminded him to take advantage of the tutoring help available to him and told him that in order to receive any credit for the assignments, both would have to be submitted by the end of the week.

"You are going to have to make my class your priority if you are going to have a chance of passing," Sharon warned. "These essays are more than a week overdue, but if you get both of them in by Friday, I'll give you a 55 on each instead of a zero."

"My health is my first priority," John asserted belligerently. "I though you'd give me more time."

"You've had considerably more time than anyone else as it is. Now, you have about twenty minutes before we meet class. Why don't you go over the essays you were to read for today?"

"I don't have my book."

"If you've been ill, why didn't you bring your book so you wouldn't have to walk back to the dorm in the snow to get it?"

"Well, I don't have a book yet. I haven't gotten around to getting to the bookstore to price the books I need; then I have to call my parents so they can send me the money."

Sharon was incredulous. "You mean that we are seven weeks into a fifteen week semester, and you haven't bought any of your books yet?"

"Sometimes I borrow a book. I know some guys in some of my classes."

"Oh. Well, see that you get those two essays to me on Friday, and no more missed classes, John. I am giving you one more chance, and I expect you to take advantage of it."

John gathered up his coat and ambled out of the office. Sharon wondered whether or not he would appear for class; she was certain he wouldn't be the only student totally unprepared to discuss the assigned reading. The class was a failure. Other classes she was teaching were energetic, stimulating, full of active students. What was wrong at 11 am? Whose fault was it that John's class was such a dismal prospect for them all?

Fifteen minutes later, Sharon picked up her books, locked the office door, and propelled herself toward the classroom on the floor below. When she entered the room, she found one student arranged across her desk for a nap; three more were deep in discussion about possibilities for the weekend. Two others sat listlessly staring into space. John and one more student were conspicuously absent.

Professor Sharon Klein picked up her textbook and, in the cheeriest voice she could manufacture, began to try to teach.

What is the value of sharing an experience such as this one? When are cases like this one to be read and discussed? When will they be useful? Any time the purpose is to generate meaningful discussion about the act and the art of teaching, cases are useful. Perhaps in departmental meetings (although one of the joys of cases is that the concerns revealed frequently transcend discipline boundaries), in brown bag lunches at Centers for Teaching Effectiveness, at new faculty orientation, whenever and wherever teachers--and/or students--want to pursue exploration of teaching and learning.

During a speech delivered at Colorado State University in 1991, Russell Edgerton, then president of the American Association of Higher Education, commented that "'one of the main reasons that [teaching] is not talked about is that we haven't found a way to think about teaching, and therefore talk about teaching, that seems authentic'" ("On the Road with Russell Edgerton" 1). Because cases involve concrete, specific, and therefore authentic subject matter, case writing and subsequent discussions about the cases solve this dilemma. Case writing is both a way out of the perplexity about how to really examine our teaching and a non-threatening way in to that necessary examination.

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EMPOWERING STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES: A PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS, FACULTY, COUNSELORS, AND DISABLED STUDENT SERVICE PROVIDERS

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The National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (1990) defines learning disabilities as a heterogeneous group of disorders which may occur across the life span; are manifested by significant difficulty in the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning or mathematical abilities; and are presumed to be due to central nervous system dysfunction.

Students with learning disabilities are entering college in increasing numbers. According to College Freshmen with Disabilities: A Statistical Profile, by Cathy Henderson (1992), the proportion of college freshmen with disabilities who reported that they had learning disabilities increased from 15 percent in 1985 to 25 percent in 1991. An increasing number of students with learning disabilities will be enrolling in developmental courses; therefore, disabled student service providers, counselors, and faculty who work in these programs will play key roles in providing these students with equal access to a college education. In addition to the roles of these professionals, students with learning disabilities have a very important role to play. They must develop working relationships with these professionals, relationships which view them as partners in the learning process. Gradually, over time, both the students and the professionals must work cooperatively to help the students develop self-advocacy skills and take responsibility for accessing and using needed services.

Students with learning disabilities come to college with varied levels of knowledge about their rights and responsibilities and varied levels of self-advocacy skills. Prior to entering college, educational decisions related to students with learning disabilities were made by parents and school based Child Study Teams as mandated by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1975. Sometimes students took an active part in these decisions, but more often they did not. When these students enter college, they are suddenly responsible for making educational decisions such as: disclosing their disabilities, accessing support services, requesting classroom accommodations, or talking with faculty.

Disabled Student Service Providers

Disabled students service providers play a key role in empowering students with learning disabilities. A key question for them to consider is the way they are providing to services to these students. Do they deliver services in such a way as to promote independence or to promote dependence? In Access in Education: Assisting Students from Dependence to Independence, Brown, Clopton, and Tusler (1991) suggest a service delivery model called the Student Development Model in which the professionals are facilitators who share "knowledge, control, and decision making skills with the students. The students are supported in gaining the skills to become their own advocates and liaison with the system (professors and departments) to obtain services and accommodations. The students are active participants in the delivery of services. The goal is to empower students to be independent and responsible for making things happen."

The authors identify nine goals involved in the delivery of services to students with disabilities:

1. Identify self to Disability Office
2. Determine student needs
3. Determine accommodations
4. Assist student to develop independence skills
5. Inform professor of student's disability
6. Negotiate accommodation methods
7. Make specific arrangements for accommodations
8. Participate in the service delivery process as requested
9. Take responsibility for the process to be implemented and run smoothly

The authors suggest that traditionally many disability offices have taken primary responsibility for helping students meet these goals. Their proposed Student Development Model suggests, that by working closely with students over time, primary responsibility for achieving most of these goals can be shifted from the disability office to the students. The disability service providers would continue to provide support as needed. (It should be noted that goal number two "Determine student needs" would remain the primary responsibility of the disability office).

As soon as students identify themselves to the disability office, the process of empowerment should begin. The first task is to meet with the students and review the documentation of their learning disabilities. Additional information should be gathered by interviewing the students and discussing the types of support services they used in high school or at other colleges. Administering a learning styles inventory can also provide useful information. Once this data is gathered, it should be put into a format that is meaningful to the students. Developing a one page learning profile (Insert Table #1 About Here) which includes a list of strengths, weaknesses, potential problems, and strategies for success is one way to organize information about the students' learning disabilities. The advantage of this format is that it provides students with a plan of action. Information contained in the learning profile can also be used by the students when they meet with faculty to discuss needed classroom accommodations.

New student orientations provide an excellent opportunity for disabled student service providers to inform students of their rights and responsibilities. In addition to educating students about the law and their responsibilities, it is important to evaluate their current levels of self-advocacy. This can be determined by using a checklist of positive self-advocacy behaviors. In "The Learning Disabilities Transition Project: A Case Study," Evelo (1990) provides an example of a self-advocacy checklist in which students are asked to evaluate the types of help they may need and their willingness to seek out that help.

Orientations are a good time to introduce students to the idea that they will gradually be expected to take on more responsibility for talking with faculty and advocating for needed accommodations. Teaching students about their rights and responsibilities is an ongoing process that may cover many semesters.

Creating opportunities for role playing and encouraging students to share their experiences in self-advocacy with each other are also two effective ways to assist students in developing self-advocacy skills.

Counselors and Faculty

Counselors and faculty also play key roles in empowering students with learning disabilities. They must be familiar with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act, have an understanding of learning disabilities, and have strategies that they can use in counseling sessions and in the classroom.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 was the initial legislation that addressed the rights of students with disabilities in postsecondary education. The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA) reaffirmed and expanded upon those rights. The ADA is based on the following five key principles which are said to encompass the "civil rights" of persons with disabilities: a focus on the individual, integration, equal opportunity, accessibility, and the provision of reasonable accommodations and auxiliary aides and services (Morrissey, 1993). It is very important

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that counselors and faculty understand these principles and their impact on how services are provided to students with learning disabilities.

Students with learning disabilities often meet with counselors for counseling and course advisement. Counselors may find that working with these students is very time intensive. Strategies to empower students that can be used during counseling include: breaking goals into smaller steps, modeling desired behaviors, role playing, clearly defining expectations, explaining new terminology or abstract concepts, providing repetition, encouraging students to take notes or tape record parts of the counseling sessions, providing positive reinforcement, and asking students to summarize the counseling session and compare their understanding with that of the counselors. Many students with learning disabilities would also benefit from relaxation and anxiety reducing techniques.

When advising students on course selection, counselors may want to use the students' learning profiles to guide them. Since these profiles highlight strengths and weakness, they will be helpful in guiding the students in choosing balanced course loads. For example, students with reading disabilities should not take four courses that require extensive reading. Instead, they might choose two reading intensive courses, a writing course, and a mathematics course.

Another strategy to help students choose a balanced, manageable course load is doing a course analysis. Chapman (1990) describes college courses as falling into three broad categories: constant-discipline, delayed-action, and self-involved. Constant-discipline courses (mathematics, science, foreign language, English composition, etc) require daily out of class study. Delayed-action courses (literature, business, social science, etc.) often have few exams. Self-involving courses (creative arts, science, nursing, computers) often have varied methods of evaluation, varied schedules, and few exams. Using a course analysis, students could be guided to evaluate the types of courses they are considering, plan strategies to succeed in these courses (using the learning profile), and if necessary change their course selections. For example, students who enroll in constant-discipline courses may find that a strategy for success is to get tutoring.

When course selection is done using a learning profile and/or a course analysis, students become actively involved in decision making.

Faculty need to be aware that determination of students' needs will be made on a case by case basis by the disabled student service provider. In terms of the classroom setting, this means that students with learning disabilities will be requesting classroom accommodations based on the disabled student service providers' recommendations.

Typical accommodations may include (but are not limited to): extended time testing, and use of tape recorders, calculators, word processors, and note takers.

In addition to these accommodations, there are many strategies that faculty can easily incorporate into their instruction that will be of great benefit to students with learning disabilities. Mangrum and Strichart (1988) suggest that faculty could provide detailed syllabi, use handouts, provide lecture outlines, write on the chalk board (in manuscript rather than cursive writing), give frequent quizzes, teach mnemonics, extend time limits, and actively involve students in the learning process through role playing and questioning. Using these strategies will increase the students' opportunities for success, build their confidence and ultimately empower them.

Many faculty are eager to accommodate students with learning disabilities, but find that some students are reluctant to identify themselves to faculty. An announcement on the first day of class by faculty or a statement in the syllabus indicating a willingness to accommodate students with disabilities often solves that problem. It is also advisable to request that students make an appointment during office hours to discuss needed accommodations.

Conclusion

Students with learning disabilities are entering colleges in record numbers. Many of these students will need to be educated about their rights and responsibilities. In addition they will need to develop skills which will enable them to advocate effectively for their rights. Empowering students with learning disabilities will require collaboration between the students, disabled student service providers, counselors, and faculty. Students must be guided to understand the importance of empowerment, and they must be willing to participate in the process of empowerment. And, disabled student service providers, counselors, and faculty must be clear about their roles. Through collaboration, students with learning disabilities will move from dependence to independence.

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LEARNING PROFILE

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES	POTENTIAL PROBLEMS	STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESS

UNDERGRADUATE REENTRY WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF THE CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

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Introduction: Considerable research has been conducted about college students, ranging from their reasons for enrolling to their reasons for exiting without a degree, from the interaction of their economic backgrounds and their parents' educational status with their own educational attainments, from their characteristic growth cognitively and ethically to how their various "involvements" in campus life correlate with their satisfaction, retention, and academic achievements.

But whom was this research actually describing? It was describing some, but not all of the traditional-age, probably residential, probably white, probably middle-class, college students. It was certainly not describing the collegiate experience of the 26-year-old father who attends classes in the evenings and works part-time during the day. Nor did it account for the collegiate experiences of the largest-growing single group of college students -- women over the age of 25 who are entering college for the first time. (As a group, these students are referred to as "reentry women" or "returning adult women," regardless of whether they had attended college earlier. They are "returning to FORMAL education.")

Our research included all of these populations, but we will focus our present discussion on reentry women's feelings within the classroom environment, and how those feelings compare with those of traditional-age males and females and of reentry men (who comprised a very small part of our sample).

Characteristics of Reentry Students Reported in the Literature: The first few years of study of reentry students were characterized by a deficit perspective. The reentry women were usually portrayed as having the following five characteristics: low self-confidence (Astin, 1976; Lance, Lourie, & Mayo, 1979; Simpkins & Ray, 1983; Swift, Colvin, & Mills, 1987); apprehension about study skills and academic ability (Astin, 1976; Simpkins et al., 1983; Wheaton & Robinson, 1983); high stress about the changing nature of social & family relationships, guilt about spending family finances, and guilt about the changing sex roles within family (Astin, 1976; Gilbert, Manning, & Ponder, 1980; Holliday, 1985; Lance et al., 1979, Simpkins et al., 1983, Swift et al., 1987.

More recently, fortunately, reentry undergraduate students (female and male) have been tagged with more positive characteristics, like the following: cognitively capable, highly motivated, more highly satisfied with their academic experiences than traditional-age students and more internally-motivated than traditional-age students. Initially, some may be very concerned with "fitting in with" and being accepted by, traditional-age students; later, there may be an antagonism that develops between the two groups over the value of education in their lives (Kasworm, 1990).

Purpose & Overview of Our Research: Our research centered on students' feelings about themselves in the classroom. Very little has been done on this topic with respect to the college level -- either with traditional-age or reentry students. Research at the pre-college level shows is that there is a positive correlation between academic achievement and students' perceptions of the learning environment (Haertel, Walberg & Haertel, 1981; Fraser, 1985; Moos, 1979). In terms of adult learners in general, one factor that is associated with a negative classroom environment is an incongruence between expected learning activities and actual learning activities (Darkenwald & Gavin, 1987). In terms of reentry women specifically, one factor associated with a negative classroom environment is one that is devoid of social interaction (Beer & Darkenwald, 1989).

Our study, which included a third co-investigator, involved over 600 undergraduate students. Our first purpose was to characterize students' levels of comfort in the classroom environment. A 13-item questionnaire that combined a semantic differential with a Likert scale was used for this purpose. We then sought to compare the perceptions of reentry women with the other three groups (traditional-age females and males and reentry males) and to learn more about reentry women's responses via personal interviews.

Inventory respondents included 82 reentry women, 37 reentry men, 273 traditional-age females and 238 traditional-age males. The majority of these students were first-year students, and the majority attended college on a full-time basis. Interviewees consisted of 16 reentry women who responded to a random-sampling mailing.

Results: (The statistical results can be obtained from the first author, upon request.) For this presentation, we focused on the results relative to women students.

1. Except for senior-level reentry women, females (both reentry and traditional-age) had considerably more negative perceptions of their classroom experiences than both reentry and traditional-age males. In particular, women students reported significantly higher levels of feelings of

inferiority, *fearfulness*, *intimidation*, *inadequacy*, *self-consciousness*, voicelessness, and stupidity than males reported.

As disconcerting as this may be, it is really not surprising in light of research conducted over the past 10-15 years, especially the studies by Lockheed (1985) and Hall & Sandler (1982), as well as those cited by the Sadkers and Klein (1991). These studies show consistently that females and males have very different experiences in classrooms from kindergarten through graduate school, and that the experiences that males have are more positive and more educationally advancing than the experiences that females have.

2. There is considerable variation that corresponded with longevity in the college system. This makes sense intuitively; however, it is not reflected in the literature. Our data shows that for reentry women students, there was a decrease in strongly negative responses and an increase in responses that are strongly positive by classification level. The differences in the responses for male students were not significantly different by classification level.

One possible interpretation for the findings regarding women students is that the students with the most negative experiences withdrew from school, and thus, they would not be represented in the sample of sophomores, juniors, and seniors. This is a reasonable interpretation because a college education is optional. There are no mandatory attendance laws, as there are at the elementary and secondary levels. Another possible interpretation is that students tempered their expectations during that time. There is little reason for this to have occurred within one group moreso than within any other group; yet, the most dramatic shift was within the reentry women group. Their responses become MUCH LESS NEGATIVE between the freshman and sophomore statuses, with a decrease of 22% in negative responses. At the same time, their responses became much MORE POSITIVE between the sophomore and junior statuses, with an increase or 25% in the positive responses. Most notably, while reentry women have the highest percentages of most negative perceptions as first-year students, they have the most positive perceptions of all students as seniors.

Our tentative hypothesis of the reason for this phenomenon, based on the interviews, is that these women have recognized and acknowledged the "chilly classroom climate" -- they now *expect* to encounter the type of classroom climate that they have experienced since their early years in school. But, they have "accepted" this, in a very positive sense. The students we interviewed reported having come to college with HIGH MOTIVATION, strong goals that were overshadowed in the initial period by the adjustments necessary (fear, understanding policies, etc). Now, after the freshman year, they have demonstrated success, have proven to themselves that they can be successful in this new environment -- in spite of the sexist practices -- and they have channeled this motivation into determination to succeed, to achieve goals. The women's belief in themselves has become the primary driving force in their academic lives.

3. Traditional-age females showed less change (both away from the negative and within the positive) than any other student group. The percentages of traditional-age female seniors who report feelings of alienation (19%), intimidation (14%), dissatisfaction in classes (17%), self-consciousness (14%), and voicelessness (22%) are *unacceptably high*, and they provide clear evidence of the need for a climate change in academia.

Additional supporting evidence for this conclusion is shown by the relatively meager changes to a positive classroom experience between the freshman and the senior levels. There is only a change of 5% on feeling "included," 6% on being "assertive," 7% on feeling "calm," and 8% on feeling "smart."

We interpret these findings in relation to the studies cited earlier indicating that women experience different, and more negative, classroom environments than males. Obviously, there is an urgent need to explore the issue of "ideal" or "preferred" classroom environments in more depth.

Recommendations for Practice: The following recommendations are made to facilitate the adult student's reentry into the academic setting, with an emphasis on satisfaction as an outcome. The first three recommendations focus on reentry women, while the remaining six recommendations are applicable to adult students in general. Similarly, the first three recommendations are directed toward faculty, while the remaining recommendations are directed toward more generally toward institutions.

1. An important component in a positive classroom learning environment is personalization; this contributes to feelings of worth. Some ways to foster this kind of environment are to refer to students by name, to offer praise and encouragement and to avoid using "generic" references to sex.

2. Classroom environments characterized by participation are especially appreciated by reentry women. It is important for faculty to be aware of differences between female and male communication styles. Many males prefer debate or argument, while many women consider these styles to be antithetical to building a sense of community. Second, it is important for the reentry woman's life experiences to be noted and capitalized on in discussions and examples.

3. The results of research on the "chilly classroom climate" for women and minorities suggests that non-verbal behaviors of faculty and male students can contribute just as profoundly to negative learning environments as verbal behaviors can. It is incumbent on faculty to be aware of the kinds of behaviors that may foster a negative classroom environment. (Note the Hall & Sandler [1982] and the Sandler & Hoffman [1992] references in the following section.)

4. Fears about the college classroom environment may be allayed somewhat through pre-matriculation visits to college classes (freshman-level classes). This procedure could allow prospective reentry students to understand what college classes are like, what is expected of students, and how faculty members relate to students. Informational meetings with faculty would also allow for an easier entry into the classroom.

5. Especially at institutions with a predominately traditional-age population, it may be necessary to offer faculty development workshops focusing on better understanding the adult learner. Role-playing, wherein the faculty assume the role of the adult learner, may be a particularly enlightening activity. Second, "focus groups" with successful reentry adults may provide faculty with needed insights into the special needs and circumstances of the adult learner.

6. Above all, the adult student has to receive encouragement to participate in the total educational process from someone within the college. The adult student needs to know that they can have some control in the outcome of their educational experience.

7 Orientation meetings specifically for adult students should be held at times when adults are most available. We have found this to be in the evening hours or on Saturdays. Adult students will feel a greater sense of camaraderie with others their age and may have more questions that will be expressed within a setting of their peers. It possible, the institution should offer no-obligation information sessions each term for adults considering college. This would allow adults to explore their options and make their decisions within their own time frame and without pressure.

8. For students already enrolled, awareness and support meetings should be offered at convenient times. They will be faced with many changes in their lives and they will have a need to understand, share and release stress. The support of a group will help them be aware of these new problems and offer ways to cope more effectively.

9. The opportunity to begin networking with other adult students cannot be underrated. It is the greatest antidote for feelings of isolation that the adult students are likely to encounter if the institution they are attending is primarily populated by traditional-age students. Activities for networking begin with orientation and continue with support groups/information sessions and with social events. Social events are especially important because adults new to the college environment may not have the time to socialize in the same ways they used to, and activities held through the college *for* the family could provide the "bridge" that is needed in the new environment.

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SIX STEPS TO WRITING A RESEARCH PAPER "FROM BEGINNING TO END"

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Many college professors have seen that look of terror on a student's face when they announce that one requirement of the class is the writing of a research paper. Many become overwhelmed during the actual research process and either turn in a poor quality paper or do not turn in a paper at all. Since a major part of the course we teach, GST 116, College Study Skills, involves the writing of a research paper, we continuously looked for ways to help our students solve this dilemma.

Almost any study skills text will mention the importance of prioritizing and setting goals to complete a project. Kathleen McWhorter (1992), author of College Reading and Study Skills, states that prioritizing not only helps students get things done but also "much worry and guilt are eliminated" (p. 32). We also wanted to use an approach that would involve the teacher first modeling the strategy since research shows modeling to be effective. Susan Mandel Glazer (1990) mentions that modeling is the first method a child uses to learn language, and modeling builds positive attitudes toward reading, writing, and speaking. The positive influence of modeling among adults in the acquisition of computer software skills (Gist, 1988), the effectiveness of modeling in music education (LeBlanc, 1992), and the importance of modeling to insure a higher level of learning of both practical and theoretical issues related to real life situations (Cochran and Gibson, 1984) are only a few examples of the positive effects of modeling.

So we decided to organize the research paper into six steps, to guide students through each of those six steps, and to teach them to establish a timeline for the completion of each step. The six steps are very general so that any other instructor could use a variety of techniques (lecture, cooperative groups, etc.) to teach or demonstrate each skill.

The six steps are:

1. CHOOSE AND NARROW TOPIC
2. DEFINE THESIS
3. SELECT REFERENCES
4. LIST REFERENCES
5. TAKE NOTES
6. PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

In step 1, the student chooses and narrows topic according to the requirements of the assignment. At this point, we introduce a topic to the students and "walk" them through the six steps. One topic we used last semester was the Federal Bureau of Investigation. At this point, the instructor could teach students how to narrow the topic if necessary. At this point, we also discuss what is necessary to form a timeline and the students work in cooperative groups to develop the timeline the whole class will follow.

In step 2, the student defines the thesis based on the narrowed topic. We find that our students benefit from peer evaluation at this point to help determine if the thesis they wrote is actually a thesis statement and is clear. Each instructor can determine how much actual teaching time be spent here on the writing of a thesis statement.

During step 3, the student will go to the library and select references. At our college, each student would participate in a one hour library orientation and then would complete a workbook developed to give the students practical knowledge of researching in a library.

In step 4, the students will list all references on one sheet of paper. References are all numbered and all information necessary for the reference page should be included. At this point, we also teach our students how to type the reference page using MLA style. Any form chosen could be taught at this point. The following is an example of the reference page developed for the topic, the FBI.

REFERENCES

1. ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANICA, VOLUME 4, 15TH EDITION, 1983.
2. UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT MANUAL, 1987-88, D NATIONAL ARCHIVES AND RECORDS ADMINISTRATION, WASHINGTON, D.C., PAGES 380-381.
3. FBI IN TRANSITION BY MARY COSTELLO, 1981, EDITORIAL RESEARCH REPORT, PAGES 675-692.
4. GOVERNMENT AGENCIES, THE GREENWOOD ENCYCLOPEDIA OF AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS, DONALD R. WHITMAN (EDITOR-IN-CHIEF), GREENWOOD PRESS, WESTPORT, CONNECTICUT, 1983, PAGES 216-222.
5. GARROW, DAVID. THE FBI AND MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR. NEW YORK, W.W. NORTON & COMPANY, 1981, PAGES 601-608.

In step 5, we teach students how to take notes for the research paper. We teach students to summarize and paraphrase using a variety of methods. We do not teach students to take notes on 3 x 5 cards as is traditionally done, but to use sheets of paper. Again, we use the topic, the FBI, to explain this to students.

At the top of each sheet of paper, the student is to label the point to be discussed in the paper. These correspond to the main ideas of the paper. There would be a page labeled "Introduction" and one labeled "Conclusion" also. Here are samples of some of the pages labeled for the topic, the FBI.

INTRODUCTION

CONCLUSION

HISTORY

JURISDICTION

Using one reference at a time, the students begin to skim and scan for information for their paper. This information is then "plugged in" on the designated sheet of paper. After completing their notes, the students arrange the information in the order they want it to appear in their paper. When quoting or paraphrasing, the student only needs to write the number of the reference book on their note sheets for contextual citation or end notes. The following are examples of two pages of notes a student would take for the topic, the FBI.

PURPOSE

1. PAGE 710.
   ANSWER THE NEEDS OF FEDERAL LEGISLATIVE BODY - FEDERAL INVESTIGATIVE BODY.
2. PAGE 380.
   INVESTIGATIVE ARM OF DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE - GATHERS AND REPORTS FACTS, LOCATES WITNESSES, COMPILES EVIDENCE IN CASES INVOLVING FEDERAL JURISDICTION.

HISTORY

1. PAGES 710-711
   1908 - CHARLES BONAPARTE, U.S. ATTORNEY GENERAL; PART OF DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE; PURPOSE - FEDERAL INVESTIGATIVE BODY.
2. PAGE 380
   CONSISTS OF 10 SEPARATE DIVISIONS, 3 EXECUTIVE ASSISTANT DIRECTORS, OFFICE OF CONGRESSIONAL AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND A DIRECTOR'S STAFF.

   "THE FBI'S INVESTIGATIONS ARE CONDUCTED THROUGH 59 FIELD OFFICES", MOST PERSONNEL ARE TRAINED AT FBI ACADEMY IN QUANTICO, VA.
4. PAGE 216
   STARTING BUDGET OF $50,000; 9 AGENTS HIRED; MONEY APPROPRIATIONS INCREASED IN 1923 FROM $415,452 TO $2,166,197 (216) AT START, PROMOTION BASED ON MERIT. HOOVER - STOP CORRUPTION WHEN TOOK OVER.
5. PAGE 602
   DIRECTOR OF FBI UNTIL HIS DEATH IN 1972 (HOOVER).

Finally, in step 6, the student composes the body of the paper on the computer. The students in our classes are taken to the computer room early in the semester to learn a word processing program. Use of the computer makes editing and revising an easy task.

Dividing a research paper into parts and teaching each part is certainly not a new idea; this is just our method of organizing that we have found beneficial for our students. They especially have positive comments about the note taking method we teach. They say it is an easy way to organize their thoughts and easier to determine the length of their paper than by using note cards.

Meloth (1991) tells us that if goals and strategies are obvious, students may be able to easily accomplish a task independently, but if the tasks are overly complex, it may be difficult for the students to recognize what to do. We can see in our own class that breaking the research paper into six steps and presenting the strategies necessary to accomplish each step has enabled our students to complete their task independently.

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NEW THOUGHTS ON OUTREACH

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Act 101/ Project Prepare of Widener University helps educationally and economically disadvantaged students prepare for higher education through professional and paraprofessional tutoring and counseling. To achieve this goal, many actions must be taken, including active outreach to students and faculty.

When being interviewed before admission, all prospective Project Prepare students are informed clearly that they are to meet with their assigned professional counselor and paraprofessional peer counselor in separate meetings during each week of their freshman year. Routinely, the prospective student will agree to do so.

The daily reality is that some students keep their appointments like clockwork, some students will keep some appointments and miss some others, and some students will refuse to make or keep their appointments once they have been admitted into Widener University. Once an appointment is missed, counseling outreach is called for, to keep up with this student's progress.

Outreach is primary prevention, an effort to prevent a problem instead of having to cure it (Albee & Ryan-Flynn, 1993). The focus is upon the prevention of a freshman student dropping out of Higher Education. Freshmen are likely risks for out if they feel isolated within the institution (Loeb & Magee, 1992; Morrisey, 1994). The general attrition rate of 40-60% in Higher Education is very high, so Higher Education must focus upon student retention successfully for public support and approval of mass Higher Education (Brown, 1986). Integration into the institution for the student is fundamental to student persistence to graduation, with student approval of a positive personal contact with faculty and staff as a cornerstone of student/institution integration (DeSousa & King, 1992; Girardi, 1990; Mutter, 1992; Ryland, Riordan & Brack, 1994; Tinto, 1987; Wolfe, 1993). Support services such as special topic seminars and outreach programs have been singled out as helpful techniques for retaining nontraditional students in Higher Education (Girardi, 1990; Hunt, Schmidt, Hunt, Boyd & Magoon, 1994; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Morrisey, 1994; Tinto, 1987). Thoughtful active outreach can be important in helping any student but especially any nontraditional student who is lacking study skills/time management/factual information about the culture and processes of the new world of Higher Education.

One important factor in student difficulty in integrating into Higher Education is the major difference between cultures and processes of Higher Education and Secondary Education. High school were developed in the 1800's, are very militaristic in organization and operation, and have an atmosphere of control and distrust rather than an atmosphere of individual freedom and trust. Higher Education was developed in the Middle Ages, as seminaries for a small number of upper class and/or exceptionally bright individuals to train for the priesthood. One institution was developed to train clerks and the other was developed to train clerics. Higher education is an institution of great personal freedom, which does include the freedom to make a shambles of one's academic career by not

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coming to class or meeting any class requirements such as taking tests or writing term papers. Some students, whether they are mainstream admissions students or special admissions students, will abuse this institutional freedom and attend class only if they feel like it, if at all, assuming they can "catch up" later on.

Some students will fail academically to aggravate some significant person such as a parent. These students are usually not making or keeping appointments for tutoring or counseling. A missed appointment by a student is a red flag for a counselor to note immediately, time for outreach, for the counselor to find the student and find out what is going on with that student.

Underprepared students, as well as mainstream students, often will avoid unpleasant realities such as low grades or difficult assignments by ignoring them. This strategy is short-sighted since final examinations and final grades will come due, no matter what, and a grade will be assigned for their performance, including a possible F for a total lack of effort. Avoiding the tutoring or counseling professional is one way to avoid the immediate problem, as the tutor or counselor wants to talk about the student's grades and general academic plans and progress.

A missed appointment by itself declares no cause; the student may have missed meeting with the counselor or tutor due to reasons which are quite legitimate: commuting schedule, family duties, bad memory, and so on. The counselor must find out why the student missed the appointment in order to fully understand the situation. The meaning of the missed appointment is unknown until the counselor talks with the student about it and no cause or motivation should be assumed beforehand.

Higher Education institutions are competing for any students, with underprepared or minority students (who are generally now referred to as "nontraditional students" in the literature and in professional presentations and conversations) being just as valued as any mainstream students to many institutions. Some nontraditional students are completely lost in the culture of Higher Education, having no elders or friends to advise them of the processes or etiquette of the University. The counselor must help the nontraditional student overcome this culture shock and learn to function effectively in this new cultural world. Every American ethnic group has experienced socio-economic segregation within its population, whereby the upwardly mobile improve their status and leave behind anyone who is not doing well (Moynihan & Glazier, 1963; Sowell, 1981). The usual American path to upward mobility is through formal education (Moynihan & Glazier, 1963), so friends and family will urge young people to enter Higher Education. These well meaning kith and kin often have no familiarity with Higher Education, only a positive opinion of its visible socio-economic benefits. The student is urged into a new cultural world with no mentors for this experience.

Interestingly enough, American public secondary education is roundly condemned in American society as doing a poor job of educating American youth (Anderson, 1990). The underprepared student in Higher Education may have never considered consulting a High School teacher or counselor about Higher Education. The underprepared student often has a set goal but no idea of the means to the goal of becoming a medical doctor, lawyer or engineer. Underprepared students are likely to be lacking in basic academic skills , such as having poor reading skill or study skills , and inflated sense of academic ability and an unrealistic assessment of the obstacles ahead (Girardi, 1990; Hunt, Schmidt, Hunt, Boyd & Magoon, 1994; Morrisey, 1994; Tinto, 1987). These students may be from non-competitive high schools in which moderate effort and cheerful cooperation with the faculty was rewarded as superlative effort in grades and praise. The students have not been competing against better students but have been receiving the best grades possible. Technology has complicated education: we are not a literate nation of readers, but a visual nation of video viewers, so reading and composition are less familiar to many students than is watching television.

An underprepared student often has an easier time being admitted into a University than competing within it (Brown, 1986; Girardi, 1990; Hunt, Schmidt, Hunt, Boyd & Magoon, 1994; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Morrisey, 1994; Ryland, Riordan & Brack, 1994; Tinto, 1987). Many institutions have special programs to help the underprepared student but once admitted many such students will make a point to avoid the educational opportunity office.

The educational opportunity office has no powers to bring the underprepared student into compliance with its tutoring and counseling services. This student may want to avoid any stigma of being a "special" student, in the sense of being weak or an undeserving mascot; the student may have a misguided sense of ability which is not realistic for the skills or effort needed to pass a class or classes (Girardi, 1990; Ryland, Riordan & Brack, 1994; Tinto, 1987). The student might not have considered entering into Higher Education even a year ago but now this student is deep into the institution and needs much help to get any higher within the institution.

To avoid an academic catastrophe for such a student, the counselor must take swift outreach action. The student's unrealistically high expectations, or alienation within this new cultural world or inflated self-concepts upon coming so far in life could be crucial here, false expectations which could cause true misery and disillusionment (Girardi, 1990). Such internal conflicts or false guidepoints may cause the student to neglect tutoring and counseling appointments, which are the most likely source of help and skill-building.

The first means of outreach is often overlooked: a personal letter. Different people will respond differently to the same thing: one student may take the letter as a sign of personal concern on the part of the counselor, and another student may well ignore the letter. Send a personal letter, not a form letter and you are likely to receive a response from the student.

Another useful outreach approach is the face-to-face meeting. The counselor should collect all of the students' schedules and be ready to go to the students' classrooms, before or after class to meet the student who has missed an appointment. Since many students will not come to the office, the counselor should go to that student. A few minutes of conversation and a promise of to continue standing outside of classrooms until you do have a meeting will bring the student into your office, usually later that day. It is useful to establish this ground rule with your clients early in your relationship : IF YOU BREAK AN APPOINTMENT WITH ME, I WILL SEE YOU FOR SURE, THE NEXT DAY, OUTSIDE OF CLASS.

Besides visiting the student outside of the classroom, no counselor should feel that the student's instructors are beyond reach. The counselor and the educational opportunity office must publicize their services and importance to faculty continually in order to insure understanding and cooperation from them. The support of the faculty for any student service is rooted in the faculty's understanding of how that student service is helpful to them directly, by keeping students in school and filling their rosters. Given that understanding, most faculty members will be happy to keep in touch with and inform the counselor of any student's academic progress or absence from classes. This form of outreach is very rewarding: in an often fragmented and compartmentalized academe, meeting new people is a friendly overture which is usually warmly received and appreciated, especially for new faculty. The counselor may well develop a strong personal friendship as well as crucial political support via this method of outreach.

No one should ignore the telephone as an outreach instrument. Be sure to have the current phone number of each student's dorm room or home. A telephone message should be noncommittal, just a request to call the counselor, and your phone number. No third party should be able to divine any information from such a plainspoken statement. Many students react quickly and positively to an after-hours telephone call, which shows that the counselor is not just a 9-to-5 persona when it comes to student concerns.

One final form of outreach is often overlooked: the all-student information seminar. Most campuses now hold seminars on such topics as Time Management, Study Skills, and other useful matters for the student. The counselor should present as many seminars as possible, meet more faculty/administration members, be a more helpful and visible professional for all concerned. This form of outreach is particularly useful for underprepared students, who may be shy about attending a seminar full of and conducted by strangers. The underprepared student is more likely to attend when the presenter is a known friend, so the student is more likely to attend, and to learn from it.

Outreach is a lot of work but it is certainly well worth the effort, and outreach will yield great benefits for the client and great fulfillment for the active professional counselor.

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FUNCTIONAL CURRICULA IN THE WORKPLACE

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Teaching hourly workers in industry has become the "hot" educational topic for the '90s. However, as with any program in which adults take the role of students, other factors become as important as the curricula. As educators, we view learning as lifelong, and see workplace education as a natural extension of this process. However, at this point, training in the workplace is still seen as unusual, if not radical or irrelevant to the daily activities of most employees from entry level to front-line supervisors. This is in direct contrast to the real needs of many workers, who, according to the findings of Irwin Kirsch (1993) in the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS), are often unable to function adequately in an environment that requires workers to read, write, compute, communicate (in English) and problem solve efficiently on the job.

As global competition becomes more fierce and the workforce grows older, businesses are starting to provide training for their hourly employees to upgrade their basic skills. However, as of 1991, the U.S. Department of Labor reported that only two per cent of the hourly workers in manufacturing received any training other than on-the-job. Yet new workplace literacy projects show that this type of training enables workers to adapt to a workplace that is very different from the workplace of a decade ago.

This workshop provides a description of a federally funded project to develop and teach industry-focused, job-functional curricula that workers will respond to and management will find beneficial. The strategies and examples discussed reflect the findings of work performed as part of three National Workplace Literacy grants funded as demonstration projects to improve the productivity of the workforce by improving literacy skills needed in the workplace.

Background

There are three criteria for successful work-based curricula:

- the material must emulate the workplace culture
- the program must allow for diverse needs among participants
- the instruction must be flexible

What is workplace literacy education and how does it compare to instruction in the college classroom? Workplace literacy is the ability for a worker to function independently on the job. Workplace education is a response to specific needs that employers have for their workforce to function competently at work. For example, if an employee misreads a work order and produces a product that does not adhere to the specifications, there is a financial loss. If employees are unable to comprehend instruction in English or communicate a problem on the line, productivity slows. Often, companies request training to improve the quality of their workforce. This training differs from academic instruction because it focuses on specific competencies that can be measured on the job. It is not general, sequential, long term academic skill building; instead its main purpose is to improve competencies required for specific job categories.

The need for competent workers has increased over the past century. In the 1930's, the average workers read on third-grade level. After World War II, they read on a fifth-grade level. In the fifties and sixties, reading levels increased to eighth grade. By the seventies, many employers felt that workers needed a high school degree to enter the workforce, but often workers who did not have a diploma adapted well anyway. However, by the eighties, having a high school degree meant that an employee should be able to read, write, and compute simple math in the workplace. As the century comes to a close, hourly workers now must make decisions, solve problems, and communicate situations once handled by mid-level management. As companies must do more with fewer resources and manpower, weaknesses in academic skills become more apparent.

The educational needs within the workplace are vast. It is a misconception to think that only line workers or unskilled laborers lack academic basic skills. In fact, as job requirements keep increasing, many more workers find that that have difficulty coping in the new workplace. Rothwell (1990) reported findings from a 1982 employer survey revealed that 30 per cent of the secretaries had difficulty reading at the level required for the job. Half of the managers and supervisors were unable to write paragraphs free of grammatical errors. Another half of the skilled and semi-skilled workers, including bookkeepers, were unable to use decimals and fractions in math problems. More damaging, employers reported that 65 per cent of the high school graduate employees, and 73 per cent of the non-high school graduates were limited in their advancement because of basic skills problems.

In addition, the workforce is changing. With the baby boom over, 75 percent of the current workforce will still be working in the year 2010. Of these workers, the labor pool has an increasing number of workers whose first language is not English.

All of these challenges result in companies often having poorly functioning employees who have difficulty coping with the changing workplace in such areas as cross-training, quality control, and safety. These companies turn to training to succeed in the new industrial revolution that is dominated by evolving technology and increasing global competition. They seek to develop a strong workforce who can adapt to these changes.

Process

Extensive work with employees in industry indicates that in order to facilitate successful workplace education acceptance of the curriculum and process must be obtained by all levels of the organization. Input is required from management, supervisors, unions, and employees. Without this initial buy-in and on-going support, the training will fail. Everyone must feel like shareholders in the training process since managers approve students going to class, and students must want to be part of the training.

The company must provide access to the inner workings of the company. Curriculum developers and instructors need to go out on the floor to see what is happening, and to determine how and why things are being done. As opposed to vocational training, a great deal of attention must be paid to academic skills required for a job. For example, factory line workers must gather parts and safety equipment before beginning the process. They must understand instructions and transmit them to others. Before the work begins, the employees must be able to read the required vocabulary, decode charts, have communication skills (often in English), and be able to understand sequencing.

An efficient, cost effective and fast method of doing a job task analysis and creating the resulting curricula is a DACUM (Developing a Curriculum). DACUM is an acronym for a method used to identify the skill needed for a particular job and the competencies that should be included in developing the training curriculum. Originally developed in Canada, this process is now widely used in America, largely through the efforts of Ohio State University. The curricula developed through this process is used to address strategies for learning to learn, the 3Rs, communication approaches (oral, listening, and writing), creative thinking and problem solving strategies. All of these academic skills are delivered through work-based situations. For example, a reading exercise such as finding details might be found in the task of reading a formulation card to determine what ingredients are required to mix a batch of chemicals.

The program aims to create practice for employees to problem-solve in order to respond to changes on the job more quickly. As employees gain greater self-confidence, they are able to clarify directions, which can result in fewer errors.

The training philosophy used in these workplace literacy training programs reflects the differences between more traditional teaching and business education. The workplace requires non-traditional education where teachers act as facilitators. The curricula is based on workplace scenarios in which the adult learners/employees are part of the learning process. The workers actively determine solutions to situations that simulate work problems. For example, an application for a multi–step math problem might be developed into a team project to determine the cost and number of fire extinguishers needed by the company to comply with local ordinances. The results of this study would then be presented to management for actual purchasing data.

The training addresses all learning modalities. Often the workers attending basic skills classes have been previously unable to learn in more traditional classroom experiences. By varying the method of instruction, and providing learners with a self-study survey to determine which modality works best for their individual learning styles, many workers finally take on the responsibility of being active learners. Instead of just sitting passively while a teacher talks, students participate in team activities which mimic their work environment They initiate projects, problem solve and decide solutions that address basic skills tasks. In addition, video tapes, filming and tape recorders add a hi-tech component to the process.

Elements of the curricula are interwoven into all content areas. Regardless of the specific course, every class includes competencies for problem solving, critical thinking, communication, math and reading. In this way, students who are not allowed off the floor for other classes can still obtain the basics required. Often classes include case studies, role plays, dialogues, and team learning which mirror life at the work site.

The classes are heterogeneous, which is more often the result of work schedules than from academic vision. Since class size in many companies is ten or less, each department usually permits only one or two students off the floor at a time. Many times seniority, perks and workflow determine who will be allowed to attend a particular class. In some cases individual tutoring is often the best solution for students who cannot thrive in a heterogeneous class. The classes are conducted by teachers who act as facilitators and teach in small, comfortable settings at the company sites.

Results

The results are far-ranging and very promising. Not only do workers have improved communication skills, but their reading, math, and problem-solving skills improve as well. More importantly, often morale and self-esteem increase, which is reflected by improved attendance and promptness.

Productivity can grow as employees learn to understand instructions and communicate with peers and management more effectively.

These upgraded skills can lead to job retention and/or promotion. Often employees see education as beneficial and request higher level courses. In addition, this academic success at work can go beyond the work site to reach their families and the community. What begins in a factory may transfer into the public schools as parents who now value education become role models for their children.

Workplace education is a win-win process. Not only do workers benefit, but companies do, as well. Workers are able to make decisions, react to changes, and address customer requirements. The result is higher productivity, better performance, and accuracy, as well as lower employee turnover. With the increased commitment to employee self-improvement, there is a higher morale in the company. All these factors translate to an improved bottom line. With so many benefits, it is no wonder that work-based training is the hot topic of the '90s.

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TRAINING WRITING STUDENTS FORMALLY

A Rationale for a Three Credit Course

James Boswell, Jr., Harrisburg Area Community College

Tutor training is and can be accomplished in many ways. Stephen North's "Idea Of A Writing Center," describes some of the misapprehension shared by our colleagues about what a writing center is supposed to do. I suppose that many still see the writing center as a "fix it" shop. At a community college, some may view the writing center as a place staffed with well-meaning students with inadequate skills to really be of any assistance. David Kooster notes that "A writer walks in the door, sits quietly with a tutor, and waits passively for a tutor to act." (WLN p. 1) I believe that the tutor must learn how to act. Thus, a well-defined program is necessary. Maureen Daly Goggin wrote that "..a well trained tutoring staff is perhaps the most important key to effective tutoring." (WLN, p. 8) She outlines the following goals for an effective tutoring program: "To make tutors aware of the process they use when they write; to acquaint them with current research and practices in writing instruction; and to provide them with practical suggestions as well as experience in tutoring writing." (WLN p. 8) I learned, after seven years as a Writing Center Tutorial Coordinator, I could not achieve the goals mentioned above through monthly training meetings attended on a hit-and-miss fashion. At the request of my supervisor, I went through the challenging process of proposing a three credit course for training tutors. I would like to discuss the process I had to go through, the course itself, and student accomplishments and reactions after taking the course.

In 1987, I was awarded a Summer Instructional Grant to do research to come up with strategies to improve tutor training at Harrisburg Area Community College. The course was developed after consultation with Professor Joanne Smith, Pennsylvania State University; Professor Muriel Harris, Purdue University; and Professor Stephen North, SUNY-Albany. I reviewed North's syllabus and two textbooks I have used--Teaching One to One: The Writing Conference(1986) and Tutoring Writing (out of print). The first text was written by Harris and the other text was edited by Harris. Professor Roger Smith (Harrisburg Area Community College) suggested that the course be named English for Tutors. After the research was completed, I presented the course for approval.

In the Spring, 1989, I presented the course to my colleagues where the concern was: "Would anyone take it for credit?" Some felt the idea might not work. Others argued students already have too many classes. Furthermore, it would cost them more money. Some counseled that others would see my proposal as merely course proliferation. Ultimately, it was decided to allow the course to have a trial run. The college has a 282 series that allows a course to be offered for two years before it is approved as a permanent offering in the college catalogue. The course was first offered in the Spring, 1990 and has been every semester thereafter. As the two-year deadline approached, I submitted my proposal to be formally reviewed and approved by my Division, the Dean, the Curriculum and Instruction Committee and the Faculty Council. It was approved in the Fall, 1991 and is now offered as English 113. Thus, one adventure ended and a new one began.

The tutoring course definitely allows for better training. With the course students receive 45 hours of instruction in comparison to the monthly meeting that would allow for 4 to 6 hours of training each semester. Student evaluations of the course have been quite high. Colleagues have shared with me that some students have told them that the course was one of the best they have taken. I currently have a student who has worked in the writing lab for two years even though she could secure employment that would pay more than what we offer. The service that we can now offer students is much better than in the past. My office mate a Senior professor has noted that students who have worked consistently with the writing lab tutors do show improvement.

The course has been a joy to teach. I have found that in sixteen weeks of instruction students are able to combine what they learn in the classroom (theory into practice) as well as in the lab. It is thrilling to talk about writing lab experiences as well as the current research in writing centers. I have modeled the course after the course for tutors taught at SUNY-Albany. Also, what Maureen Goggin describes as important training activities has been modified to suit my class. In The Writing Lab Newsletter, she lists the following activities: "evaluating sample student writing, role playing, discussion of tutoring techniques, reading and discussing the current research, reading or seeing dramatizations of tutorial situations, journal writing, classroom observations, and three papers," (WNL, pp. 8-11) I have tried to incorporate each of these activities into the course syllabus. I have not done a lot with class observations. I would like to do more there. I have also added information on literacy issues, revision strategies, diagnosis, cultural diversity, learning styles, and writing apprehension. A course objective is to refine the writing skills of peer tutors as well as the students they tutor.

Tutoring courses are offered at many different institutions. These courses can be found at Millersville University and Indiana University of Pennsylvania. Other institutions include: The University of Maine, University of Maryland, Elon College, Dutchess Community College, and Beaver College. In developing the course, I studied syllabi from several colleges. I assign readings on writing and tutorial instruction. Projects were designed to help students learn how to work "one to one" with peers. My primary objective is for students to understand the writing process and how students can be helped through each stage of that process. Indiana University of Pennsylvania offers a course: Counseling in School Settings. One of the goals describes what English 113 at Harrisburg Area Community College tries to do "The student will demonstrate the skills and competencies necessary to provide appropriate tutorial/helping interventions." Similar to other writing tutor training courses, students are required to write journal entries, make oral presentations, and write papers.

Students are encouraged to discuss in class problems they face in the writing center. Students in English 113 are required to spend three hours working in the writing center each week while taking the course. They are paid for those hours unless they choose to volunteer. I have modeled my written assignments after those of Professor North's. Specifically students write a research paper, a problem paper, and a paper on how they developed as writers. Student growth is crucial in the course.

I like what Joy Rouse mentioned in her article, "Tutor Recruitment and Training at Miami University." She describes a one credit course EDT 310 Methods in Tutoring Adults, where students learn "listening skills, diagnosis, supplemental instruction, and evaluation; study skills; and multicultural awareness." (WLN, 2) What makes the course exciting is that it becomes also a study in human relations, psychology, sociology, critical assessment and language. I call upon colleagues outside my discipline to make presentations. I have, for example, had the reference librarian and a colleague who teaches sociology to make presentations. I always invite an English instructor to share his or her expertise. I have asked writing center staff to assist in role play activities. I also assign to students creative art work to enhance their understanding of the writing and tutoring process. I do not believe that my objectives could be accomplished through infrequent meetings as noted earlier. Working with students and writing center staff make it possible to significantly develop the skills of peer writing tutors. Tutors at the community college do not have the same background as a junior or senior education major. However, I do believe that freshman or sophomore tutors at the community college can be very helpful, especially since they can show empathy with other students since they, too, have similar busy schedules.

Generally, students who complete the course will remain to tutor in the lab. Some will work in the lab for years. Several have been there for two years. Others will work "off and on." Some volunteer their time. Many have told me personally that the course helped them to learn a lot. I know of three outstanding students who decided to become teachers as a result. The tutors are usually very successful students who graduate and transfer to other colleges and universities. Each student has been recommended by one English professor. At least five have been inducted into Phi Theta Kappa, the honorary fraternity for community colleges. I have seen some students make significant progress in the course. Furthermore, they share these positive experiences with each other. I believe that they get to know each other better because of the class environment. Finally, I believe a true community of writers is formed among these student tutors.

Professor Goggin points out that "Just as lectures, readings, and discussions do not teach students how to write--only writing will do this--similarly, ...techniques (alone) do not teach people how to tutor. Only through writing and tutoring can someone come to understand the process of both and thus become an effective tutor." (WNL, p. 11) I proposed a three credit tutoring course for precisely those reasons. Students need to write and tutor in order to learn how to be effective writing tutors. For Harrisburg Area Community College, the idea of a course for writing tutors was an idea whose time had come. Teaching a small group of select students how to mold and shape the written word to later share that knowledge with their peers is a worthy, lofty goal for an academic community.

Thus, I find teaching a three credit tutoring course coupled with writing center experience, a unique arrangement. Students work with the professional staff: teachers, counselors, and administrators. This arrangement brings together instruction and hands on experience. The tutor is not trained in a haphazard manner. The tutor acquires skill in working with people and through course work, tutors are encouraged to do scholarly work. Finally, they are given the opportunity to put theory into practice and later to report their experiences. A three credit course allows them a tremendous opportunity for intellectual stimulation and growth unlike any other course offered at the college because students have real work experience, they are able to work with their peers and make a solid contribution to that aids in student retention.

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Insert Exhibit 1 Here

FROM IDEA TO THREE CREDIT COURSE

PROPOSAL FOR INSTRUCTION GRANT	FALL 1987
FINAL DRAFT OF PROPOSAL	SPRING 1988
RESEARCH	SUMMER 1988
REPORT TO ADMINISTRATION	FALL 1988
PRESENTED TO COLLEAGUES	SPRING 1989
COURSE OFFERED 282	SPRING 1990-1992
APPROVED FACULTY COUNCIL	FALL 1991
OFFERED AS ENGLISH FOR TUTORS 113	FALL 1992

ACTIVITIES FOR COURSE

REVIEW OF CURRENT LITERATURE

WORKING IN THE LAB FOR THREE HOURS WEEKLY

WRITE THREE PAPERS

JOURNAL

GRAMMAR REVIEW

ROLE PLAY

CLASS VISITS FROM OTHER FACULTY

PEER EDITING

DIAGNOSIS

WRITING APPREHENSION